

ACTIVITIES OF INTERNATIONAL NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND  
IMPLICATIONS ON HUMAN SECURITY IN KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA

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of Master of Peace and Conflict Studies of Masinde Muliro University of Science and  
Technology

June, 2021

**DECLARATION AND APPROVAL**

**DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE**

This thesis is my original work prepared with no other than the indicated sources and support and has not been presented elsewhere for a degree or any other award.

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## **DEDICATION**

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## ABSTRACT

While Kenyans have witnessed an increased and enlarged presence of INGOs in their country over the last few decades, the much sort-after development and accompanying human security goals still remain a distant mirage. This study, therefore, set out to establish what accounts for the seeming incapacity of these INGOs to play their widely expected and perceived role of Human Security. The study paid specific reference to Kakamega County, Kenya. The research was guided by the following specific objectives: firstly to establish the nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya; second to assess the levels and state of human security in Kakamega County, Kenya; and third, to evaluate the challenges that INGOs face, and the opportunities in the pursuit of Human Security goals in Kakamega County, Kenya. With the relatively new status of the human security concept, the study promised to contribute to the ever increasing body of knowledge in this area, as well as enrich the developmental approaches and policies applied in Africa which are in need of urgent reform. The study employed theories and models either fully or partly borrowing from: the Basic Needs Approach, the Human Development Approach, the dependency and underdevelopment theory, and Neo-Liberalism. Methodologically, the researcher employed an exploratory and explanatory research design. The study population comprised of the following categories of respondents: officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, from the national level (officials from the NGO Coordination Board), to County development officers, and Members of County Assembly (MCAs); and household heads from the County. The study relied on both primary and secondary sources of data, employing Focus Group Discussions, interviews, observation, and questionnaires as methods of data collection. Secondary data was attained via a thorough review of existing academic literature, which included books, journals, and periodicals. Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS version 23 software to obtain descriptive statistics, particularly frequencies and percentages, and presented in tables, graphs, and charts. Qualitative data was analyzed using thematic techniques to support quantitative data and presented in form of narrative reports. From the evidence, INGOs have been beneficial in addressing many socio-economic problems in the region including food insecurity, and diseases such as HIV/AIDS. However, the findings indicated human security levels that fall below the national average, despite the many encouraging steps by both the private and public sector to achieving the elusive goal of human security. INGOs in Kakamega County also face challenges including: poor governance and networking, absence of effective strategic planning, lack of autonomy and government interference. Nonetheless, opportunities exist with regard to local resource mobilization, local partnerships and participation, effective support from local and national governments, devolution, and better development strategies. The overall conclusion of this study is that INGOs have had an expanded presence in Kakamega County through the years, bringing with them many benefits. However, the County's state of human security still remains below the desired levels, with the aforementioned challenges limiting the performance of the present INGOs. Therefore, there is need for more stakeholder involvement, better cooperation with the local and national governments, as well as better development strategies in order to achieve the desired developmental and human security goals.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

BNA: Basic Needs Approach

CBO: Community Based Organization

DCs: Developing Countries

EU: European Union

FBO: Faith Based Organization

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

GOK: Government of Kenya

HDA: Human Development Approach

HDI: Human Development Index

IGO: Inter-Governmental Organization

INGO: International Non-Governmental Organization

NGO: Non-Governmental Organization

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

UN: United Nations

UNDP: United Nations Development Program

## **DEFINITION AND OPERATIONALIZATION OF KEY CONCEPTS**

### **Civil Society**

This refers to Non-state Actors that are distinct and independent from the state system. It refers to the numerous and collective INGOs. For the purpose of this study, Civil Society referred to the non-state actors that are distinct from the state system, located in Kakamega County.

### **Human Security**

In this study, Human security referred to the absence of socio-economic threats to individuals and communities that reside in Kakamega County of Kenya. This study adopted Human Security to mean: economic security, food security, health security, and environmental security, as experienced in Kakamega County, Kenya.

### **International Non-Governmental Organization (INGO)**

For the purpose of this study: INGO referred to organizations in Kakamega County of Kenya, which operate beyond state boundaries, usually with participation from several countries, and have an international mission. They must be founded by private individuals; be independent of states and demonstrate a transnational scope of activities; and possess at least a minimal organizational structure. They are not for profit, and their core purported core objective is to meet, or supplement the nation state's provision of socio-economic needs for the citizenry.

### **National Security**

This study adopted the concept of national security to refer to the conventional statist approach of security in Kakamega County, where the focus is on the state as the main referent of security, rather than the individual.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This introductory chapter brought to the fore the background of the study, the research problem, and the research objectives. In addition, this chapter illuminated the questions that guided the investigation, those that the researcher engaged in the study. Herein also, the researcher explained the academic and policy justifications of this study.

#### **1.1 Background to the Study**

The term Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) came into common usage courtesy of the United Nations (UN) Charter when the Second World War ended in nineteen forty five. However, the long history of International NGOs can be marked out back to the anti-slavery movements of the 1800s, the women's suffrage movements, and later during the World Disarmament Conferences that took place after the world wars. NGOs became a central component of civil society, coinciding with the process of restructuring the welfare state, as well as the recognition that the "many social, economic and political challenges" could not be solved by the state alone (List and Salamon, 1999). NGOs developed to be recognized as alternative development actors, focusing on humanitarian roles, advocacy, and developmental aid.

International Non-Governmental Organizations (INGOs) have progressively become renowned as significant actors in social, political and economic development agendas (Paul and Israel 1991; Edwards & Hulme, 1992). In the international space, according to Boli (2006), at the moment

“6,000 to 7,000 fully transnational international NGOs exist in addition to tens of thousands of transnationally oriented NGOs which are based in one single country but active internationally.”

In particular, the vast majority of the third sector exist and source funding separate from the state and, thus, their projects originate more from the voiced needs of people as opposed to the state. More recently, INGOs have been viewed as forceful sources for social change amongst developing nations. Their rationale, scope and emergence have been principally directed towards “social service delivery, advocacy, protection of the natural environment, and in establishing new institutions to reflect the dynamic, elusive needs of an increasingly impoverished people” (Boli, 2006).

On the other hand, the history of the human security concept can be drawn back to the contents of the Human Development Report of nineteen ninety four, dealt out by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1994). Conventional ways to deal with security since the virus war period zeroed in on shortfall of physical or direct viciousness or dangers, and foundation of sway and respectability of nations, shutting out outer military dangers. The Human security idea consequently addresses a strong, yet antagonistic exertion by areas of the scholastic and strategy local area to rehash and extend this origination of safety. From the customary significance of safety, generally indicated as "public safety", the human security idea takes an extreme shift from state-drove military security ideas to widen it to include "financial security, food security, wellbeing security, ecological security, individual security, local area security and political security", as per the UNDP report, (1994). Human security in this way withdraws from the

conventional state driven origination of safety, and brings up the person as the center referent for security. Human security is "basically a worry with Human respect" (UNDP 1994). Accordingly, the UNDP (1994) set up for the idea to be characterized as "a stage forward in featuring the threats to human security and endurance presented by destitution, sickness, natural pressure, denials of basic freedoms, just as outfitted struggle."

As INGOs increase and expand around the globe and gain more obligation and influence, a public and academic discussion has arisen concerning whether these enterprises are well ready to "play an effective and trustworthy role" in advancement of Human Security (Anderson & Rieff, 2004; Anheier & Hawkes, 2009; Charnovitz, 2006; among others). Africa has been the recipient of much attention and aid from INGOs. NGOs at the moment ensure "more aid to developing countries than ever before", and the resources of for the most part big INGOs have "exceeded those of some Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) donor countries" (Anheier & Hawkes, 2009).

Kenya's HDI has improved, albeit slightly in recent years, highlighting the citizenry's improving standards of living from increasing economic standing. Nonetheless, a significant number of people in the country are still stuck in abject poverty, lack of affordable and quality healthcare, food insecurity, among others. An assessment of Kenya's Human security in regards to economic security, food security, health, personal security, political security and environmental security indicates that the country still has a long way to go (Nthia and Orodho, 2003; Brown, 2003; UNDP, 2006; KNCHR, 2014; UNDP 2016; Kabaara 2017).

The aforementioned studies, reports and analyses cite the following human security problems in Kenya: The arrangement of fundamental administrations in the schooling and wellbeing areas isn't up to per; an expansion in the quantity of dislodged people in Kenya; industrious dread assaults, between local area clashes and savagery; HIV/AIDS, jungle fever and Tuberculosis as dangers to Human Security; persistent neediness; expanded dismissal of political opportunities; among others. The fifth devolution delegates meeting held in Kakamega for the first time on April 23rd twenty eighteen saw the county's delegation highlight the chronic need of health care, lower housing costs, food insecurity and an ailing manufacturing sector, unable to meet the demands of the populous county (Imende, 2018). What is more, Kakamega County has a soaring HIV/AIDS burden, with a prevalence rate of 5.9 percent, with most new infections among young people (National Aids Control Council, 2017). Indeed, Kakamega County's state of human security was succinctly summarized by Ontomwa and Okoth (2013) who observed that satisfying demands from volatile sugarcane farmers, pressure of high population growth and housing shortages, an ailing tourist and agricultural sector, are some of the human security challenges that face the county.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The emergence of NGOs coincided with the increased dissatisfaction of the state as the main development actor in the 1980s (Edwards & Hulme, 1992). The INGOs movement that has a long history in the more developed countries has increasingly, in the last decades, established strong links and presence in the Global South. Equally of note has been the steady and gradual diversification of the roles of these INGOs from being purely relief and welfare-based to

development-oriented organizations. INGOs have become widely accepted as development actors, complementing or sometimes acting on behalf of the state (Edwards & Hulme, 1992).

In Africa, INGOs have become key actors regarding issues of human security, registering a continuous growth in number and presence (Sally, 2017). However, in spite of this increased and enlarged presence of INGOs in the economies of developing countries, the much sort-after development and accompanying human security agendas of the citizens of these states remain a distant mirage.

Particularly, Kenya has witnessed an upsurge in the number of INGOs in the country, advertising to convey a wide assortment of social welfare roles in partnership and on behalf of the citizens of Kenya. Radley (2008) observed that both civil society and the NGO sector in the country were “poised to play a significant role in determining the direction and future of the country’s socio-economic agendas”, including health and HIV/AIDs, the agricultural sector, environmental protection, Kenyans’ livelihoods, among other areas.

Nevertheless, the country’s development and Human security’s agenda still remain elusive (Nthia and Orodho, 2003; Brown, 2003; UNDP, 2006; KNCHR, 2014; UNDP, 2016; Kabaara, 2017). Indeed, since 1990, Kenya has gone through a noticeable deterioration in human security levels, from distending criminality, increased HIV/AIDs prevalence, unemployment, ethnic cleansing, just to name a few. In Kenya, many pointers – every so often already below par, even by sub-Saharan African standards – have in the past illustrated a decline during the 1990s (Brown,

2003). The mid- 2000s, which came with a new-found optimism among Kenyans after the end of the Moi regime, ensured that Kenyans were introduced to several human security challenges. UNDP (2006) reiterates that much remains to be done to achieve human security goals.

On 12th December twenty seventeen, President Uhuru Kenyatta, the Kenyan head of state, publicized his pioneering strategy, the “Big Four”, which was meant to lead the development blueprint of Kenya in the period before the 2022 elections. It draws attention on essential needs that are essential in improving the quality of living of the citizenry as part of the efforts in transforming into an upper middle-income state by the year twenty thirty. Top of this campaign were “affordable and decent housing, affordable healthcare, food and nutritional security, and employment creation, all aspects of human security” (KIPPRA, 2018). Kenya’s human security goals are still yet to be met, despite various efforts by both state and non-state actors. Kakamega County lags behind in various indicators of human security, including “HIV and AIDs prevalence, health, education, poverty alleviation, environment, sexual and reproductive health services”, among others (KCIDP, 2013; DEPI, 2018; NCPD, 2017; KNCHR, 2014). It is in this context that the research problem arises: What accounts for the seeming incapacity of INGOs to play their widely expected and perceived role in Human Security?

### **1.3 Research Objectives**

The general objective of the investigation was to assess the contribution of INGOs activities toward promoting Human Security in Kakamega County of Kenya. The specific objectives of this investigation were to:

- i. Examine the nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya.
- ii. Assess the level and state of human security in Kakamega county, Kenya.
- iii. Evaluate the challenges and opportunities that INGOs face in the pursuit of Human Security goals, and therefore, the opportunities in Kakamega County, Kenya,.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

The researcher posed the following research questions:

- i. What is the nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya?
- ii. What are the levels and state of human security status in Kakamega County, Kenya?
- iii. What are the challenges and opportunities for INGOs face in the pursuit of Human Security goals in Kakamega County, Kenya?

#### **1.5 Justification of the study**

##### **1.5.1 Academic Justification**

The Global South's development and human security status continues to plummet, or any improvement, if at all, is not at the rate so desired by policy makers, governments, scholars, and

the general citizenry. The essential debate on the problems of the Global South have shifted from goals-about which there is something close to a consensus- to strategies of action. Among scholars, for instance, debate is ripe about the impact and utility of the state and the NGO sector as actors of development, and as viable strategic vehicles for our development goals (Berg, 1996; Matanga, 2000; Kamat, 2002; Amutabi, 2006; Mwanzia and Strathdee, 2016; Lehmann and Bebbington, 2018).

With the relatively new status of the human security concept, many studies such as Paris (2001), Newman and Richmond (2001), and Barnett and Adger (2007) have tended to isolate the state and IGOs in analyzing and setting strategies for human security, overlooking the role of NGOs in the process. The researcher, therefore, is certain that the influence of NGOs, and in particular INGOs, on human security, deserves further scientific investigation. In as much as a number of development thinkers and practitioners appreciate the role of INGOs in development, not many tend to link them to human security as a specialized aspect of development, and, therefore, the essence of this study.

Focusing the study on Kakamega County is deemed appropriate due to a variety of reasons. First, Kakamega county, through various policy and academic reports, records a consistently poor human security record. For instance, a report by *the Povertist*, a leading publication aimed to combat poverty and equality, observed that:

1. Land properties in the County are “far too small to be economically viable” especially in Ikolomani, Mumias, and Shinyalu (Komen, 2015);
2. A large size of the County’s populace has settled in other counties searching for jobs, leaving behind the very few productive individuals in Kakamega County;
3. Many of “would have been employable residents of the County exhibit low levels of well being symptomatic in the prevalent abuse of alcohol (Changáa) and Drugs (Canabis Sativa)” rendering them unproductive”;
4. “The level of societal breakdown in Kakamega is legendary and the press is replete with anecdotal incidences of homicide, fratricide, rape, theft, etc”;
5. “The cash crop economy has not worked in favour of the residents of Kakamega. Recent reports in the press indicate that Mumias Sugar Company has been looted to bankruptcy and the company has been closed awaiting the hammer of administrators.”
6. The levels of education in Kakamega are very low and “have been for a long time” (Miheso, 2020).

To back this evidence up, according to the 2009 census data, “Kakamega County is the poorest in Kenya in terms of per capita income”. Consequently more individuals are observed to live in

poverty and because the county has a high total number of people than those of say counties like Laikipia, Turkana or Embu, “its contribution to national poverty is therefore high” (Miheso, 2020). Therefore, it follows that this study will be conducted in an important and strategic area for the country in terms of human security.

The researcher will focus on INGOs as opposed to the general NGO body because of their greater global reach, their sheer size and scope, their superior budgetary allocations, and they have demonstrated a relatively lower possibility of being influenced by political actors (Hearn, 2007). In this regard, INGOs retain immense potential to impact international, state, and community policy and have proven that potential on many occasions.

### **1.5.2 Policy Justification**

Matters associated to human security are global in their happenings but local in their influences. Several are long-term in scope, are linked with noteworthy uncertainty, may have significant economic risks, and call for multifaceted institutional organization to lessen the threats to human security. Ergo, the primacy of studies that attempt to tackle global vulnerabilities through a human security standpoint cannot be overstated.

Human security is still an emerging paradigm, and as such, still holds a lot of conceptual blurriness. What is clear, however, is that the developmental approaches and policies applied in Africa are in need of urgent reform. Therefore, this study was well placed to attempt to address

and possibly fill a few chasms for the African policy makers, in regard to their development agendas.

Based on the Kenyan experience, this study would serve as a timely and essential addition to knowledge for policymakers, in the sense that it promises to help connect some dots in the understanding of human security, in what is still an area yet to be studied exhaustively and extensively - a concept still in its infancy. Consequently, the study promised to provide noteworthy insights and contributions to the wider field of peace and conflict studies.

## **1.6 Scope of the Study**

This study specifically assessed the contribution of INGOs in promoting Human Security in Kenya, with specific reference to Kakamega County. The researcher purposively selected sub counties that have been INGO beneficiaries in the last decade. The researcher focused on INGOs as opposed to the general NGO body because of their greater global reach, their sheer size and scope, their superior budgetary allocations, and they have demonstrated a relatively lower possibility of being influenced by political actors (Hearn, 2007). Human security- the merging of development and security—places the liberation and development of the individual at the epicenter of the security agenda. It is essential to acknowledge, however, that the state – in conjunction with development organizations, NGOs and other civil society assemblages – is still

regarded as the utmost effective guarantor of this security. This study placed its focus on the function of the civil society sector in human security. However, human security and development are complex entities, and an emphasis on the civil society does not take away the importance of other drivers and equally important guarantors of human security like the state.

The study focused on the postcolonial era of Kenya, up until the year 2018. Post-independence, the Kenyan state (and by extension many African states), committed themselves to eradicating poverty, ignorance, and disease (Nandi, 2013). However, the increased weakness of the state as development provider facilitated the entry of the NGO society into the development space of the country. Thus the postcolonial period was deemed to be a reasonable starting point for this study. The researcher visited the field between 3<sup>rd</sup> of April 2019, to 23<sup>rd</sup> of April, 2019. Lastly, the study employed exploratory and explanatory research designs to achieve the objectives.

## **1.7 Summary of Chapter**

This chapter essentially presented the problem under investigation. It spelled out the objectives of the study, and the accompanying research questions. The chapter sought to illustrate that there is indeed a human security problem in Kenya, despite the enlarged presence of INGOs, whose perceived functional role is to enhance and promote human security. This chapter also discussed the objectives, the research questions, and the justification of the study. The next chapter is a

synthesis, critique, and analysis of various relevant works by scholars, identifying the gaps which the study intends to fill. The chapter will also contain an elucidation of the theoretical framework which will underpins the investigation.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter entailed a review of literature regarding the specific concepts informing the topic of research: “INGOs” and “Human Security”. Background Literature on the aforementioned concepts will be examined. In addition, the involvement of INGOs in Kenya’s Human Security Agenda was reviewed. Herein, the researcher sought to evaluate, analyze and synthesize previous scholarly literature related to the study. Taking a funnel-like approach, the researcher analyzed the issues thematically, namely: nature and extent of INGOs involvement in human security; Levels and state of Human Security; and the challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of Human Security goals. This analysis was done from the global, African –continental, and Kenyan dimensions. The hope was that this approach aided to underscore, both explicitly and implicitly, the gaps in knowledge in this area of concern. Further, the chapter layed out the theoretical premises which underpin and guide the study in an elaborate conceptual framework.

#### **2.1 The Nature and Extent of INGOs’ Involvement in Human Security**

##### **2.1.1 The NGO Concept: Definitions, Origins and historical evolution**

Currently, Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are accepted as vital third sector players on issues regarding of development, human rights, charitable roles, environmental issues, and numerous other zones of global concern. NGOs have been present in several types for years, but

they were promoted to noticeable standing in development circles and amplified their quantity intensely in the nineteen eighties and nineteen nineties. The universe of NGOs includes a "confounding assortment of names" (Cernea, 1988). Notwithstanding the name NGO being utilized broadly, there exist various other comparable articulations utilized, for example, "philanthropic," "deliberate," and "common society" undertakings. In various occurrences, "the utilization of various names doesn't reflect elucidating or logical thoroughness, yet is rather an outcome of the various societies and narratives in which considering NGOs has arisen" (Cernea, 1988).

From the late 1980s, List and Salamon (1999) observe that NGOs "assumed a far greater role in development than previously. NGOs were first discovered and then celebrated by the international donor community as bringing fresh solutions to longstanding development problems characterized by inefficient government to government aid and ineffective development projects." Within the succeeding struggle to open up economies and "roll back" the government as part of structural adjustment policies, the civil society was acknowledged as a worthwhile substitute to public sector service carriage. After the Cold War, the global donor community started to promote a novel policy agenda of "good governance" which saw development aims as emergent from a well-adjusted association between the state, market, and third sector. Within this model, "NGOs also came to be seen as part of an emerging civil society" (List and Salamon, 1999). The emerging thoughtfulness accorded to NGOs at this time came together with significant amounts of aid, efforts at enhancing the capability of NGOs to scale up their efforts, and led eventually to vital modifications in mainstream development theory and policy, including new theories regarding participation, capacity building, gender, and an assortment of people centered methodologies to

poverty alleviation efforts. For example, Cernea (1988: 8) argued that NGOs personified “a philosophy that recognizes the centrality of people in development policies,” and that “this along with some other factors gave them comparative advantages over government.”

The Committee on Non-Governmental Organizations, cited in Weiss and Gordenker (1996), presented the following in isolating non-governmental organizations: “An NGO is a not-for-profit, voluntary citizens' association, that is planned on a local, state or international space to look at concerns in backing of public interests. It may be concerned with specific objectives and comprising of individuals with shared interests; they perform an assortment of services and humanitarian roles, convey nationals' issues to the state, observe policy and program implementation, and inspire participation of civil society patrons at the community level. They offer scrutiny and know-how, aid as early warning instruments, and aid in the monitoring and implementation of international contracts. Others are structured around particular subjects, such as human rights, advocacy or poverty” (Weiss and Gordenker 1996).

### **2.1.2 A Classification of NGOs**

William (1991) proposed two ways to classify NGOs, first using “their orientation”, and second, by their “level of operation.” Classified using their orientation, he identifies charitable organizations, service oriented organizations, participatory organizations and empowering organizations. Charitable Orientation regularly contains a bureaucratic paternalistic objective with diminutive participation by the recipients. It comprises NGOs with undertakings concentrating on helping with the wants of the vulnerable people in society, including “distribution

of food, clothing or medicine; provision of housing, transport, schools” amongst others. These organizations might similarly assume aid actions during emergency situations. Service Orientation takes in organizations with functionalities like the delivery of health, family planning or schooling facilities in which the program is designed by the NGO and individuals are allowed to contribute in its implementation and in delivering the service. According to William (1991), Participatory Orientation is regarded as self-help programs where local citizens are involved specifically in the application of a project by bringing funds, implements, land, supplies, labor amongst other contributions. In the old style local area advancement project, cooperation begins with the issues portrayal and suffers into the arranging and execution stages. Agreeable affiliations consistently contain a participatory direction. Engaging Orientation is the place where the goal is to help needy individuals think of a more clear thought and perspective of the social, political and monetary issues affecting their lives, and to sustain their responsiveness to their own expected ability to work on their lives. Occasionally, these groups improve spontaneously around a challenge, at other times outside employees from NGOs play an enabling role in their development. Regardless, there is maximum participation of the citizens with NGOs playing the role of enabler.

On the other hand, William (1991) identifies NGOs classified according to their level of operation as: “First, Community-based Organizations (CBOs) which are formed out of people’s own resourcefulness”. Such examples include sports associations, gender based societies, and communal organizations, religious or educational societies. There exists a significant assortment of these enterprises, some funded and complemented by NGOs, whether at the local, national or

global level, or unilateral or global organizations, and others existing without the help of external organizations. Particular ones are committed to increasing the awareness of the poor in urban areas or aiding them to acknowledge and demand their rights in accessing different public good services while others are concerned with bringing these services themselves. Other examples include city based organizations , “which include organizations such as the Rotary or lion's Club, chambers of commerce and industry, coalitions of business, ethnic or educational groups and associations of community organizations” (William, 1991). The author explains that “some exist for other purposes, and become involved in helping the poor as one of many activities, while others are created for the specific purpose of helping the poor”. Another sort is National NGOs, which incorporate social orders like the Red Cross, YMCAs, and expert social orders. While a portion of these associations have branches around the nations that they are facilitated, helping neighborhood networks on the ground, some of them just have one base. Fourth is INGOs which shift from common associations, for example, Save the Children associations, OXFAM, CARE, Ford and Rockefeller Foundations those offices that are based upon strict establishments. Their jobs vary from principally financing nearby NGOs, associations and adventures, to executing the actual ventures.

Korten (1990) sorts NGOs into four sorts, viz.: "deliberate associations (VOs); Public Service Contractors (PSC); Hybrid Governmental/Non-Governmental Organizations (GONGOS), and People's Organizations (POs)." Korten (1990) indicated the initial three sorts as "Outsider Organizations" since they exist to take care of the necessities of the outsiders, for example people

who are not unequivocally membered to the organizations. The fourth area is examined as the First Party Organization, since they are basically regulated and directed by individuals themselves.

As indicated by Korten (1990), of the Third Party Organizations, "VOs are unmistakably esteem driven, seeking after a social mission that make them moderately resistant to the political plan of either the public authority or the monetary powers of the commercial center." Despite being lesser in size, their capacity for cultural and institutional creation has been grounded. This viewpoint is seldom set up in broad daylight and business associations. By the by, while VOs work as courses for advancement, they frequently wind up in an argumentative spot as they pursue their vow towards social change.

In this scientific classification, PSCs are dependent on monetary remaining in supporting their ventures. They acquire their assets through the compromise of the market as far as labor and products. They additionally tend to rush to react to financial necessities instead of other public concerns. With regards to these associations, "the client is the contributor" (Korten, 1990).

Korten (1990) observed that VOs and PSCs are, oftentimes, are erroneously taken to be refer to the same thing as a result of their features as not for profit agencies. Furthermore, they share the same kind of legal registering with resemblances in mission statements. The variance, nonetheless, can be found regarding their commitment. VOS are more inclined to deal with issues social change, while PSCs, conversely, are business focused. Contrasting to the VO setup, PSCs regularly avoid advocacy and disputes.

Regarding GONGOs, Korten (1990) confirmed that they are basically tools of the government in implementing policy. Formed and administered by the state, GONGOs are answerable to the state and not to their members or administrative board. Conversely, POs are agencies that push their participants' concerns. Typically known for their independence, they are thought-out to be agencies that are rightly "by the people, of the people and for the people" (Korten, 1990).

### **2.1.3 Distinguishing INGOs from other CSOs**

According to Bendana, (2000), INGOs in benefactor nations vary from other domestic CSOs in benefactor and receiver states in numerous aspects; firstly regarding their international tasks, their scope, scale, and physical influence, resources, finances, and functions in economic growth. Membership of international confederations: A critical feature that differentiates INGOS from national CSOs in donor states is that they encourage set-ups all over the world. INGOs typically own numerous self-governing national workplaces based in numerous OECD and a few middle class states in the Global South, "but they also function together as members of global consortia, confederations or affiliations that undertake development programmes through their own regional and national offices in a large number of developing countries" (Bendana, 2000). Therefore Oxfam Australia, for example, constitutes an independent agency carrying an autonomous administrative wing and framework but is a participant of the Oxfam International confederation that constitutes sixteen other member enterprises. CARE Kenya, in the same way, is a member of CARE International, a confederation of fourteen participant societies.

Global reach: INGOs possess wide-ranging global practical influence because of their participation in international associations. Although individual national INGO partners could simply openly oversee or control projects in a comparatively small number of states, they are able to partake through the whole assortment of the association's program nations. Bendana, (2000), for explains with the following examples, "Save the Children works in one hundred and twenty countries globally, World Vision International in ninety eight countries, and Oxfam International in more than ninety countries." The global scope of these organizations regularly "exceeds that of many individual OECD official donor bilateral geographic programs" (Bendana, 2000).

Size and scope: INGOs are mostly far greater than other local organizations in host countries, regarding finances, workers, and functionality. For example, in Australia, 2 of the major INGOs boast over two hundred employees based in the country, while almost all other civil society organizations have less than fifty employees, and often, much less than fifty. INGOs also normally have much larger funding and economic might than national CSOs: in two thousand and eleven World Vision Australia's profit was over three hundred million dollars, a figure that many national organizations can only dream of.

The big revenues that INGOs attract and operate within is the outcome of wide ranging influences, comprising an amplified capacity for raising funds from outside sources such as individuals, states and other establishments, more significant legality and influence with state and other partners, and superior capability to utilize resources at economies of scale. These

reasons also point out to the fact that sizable INGOs have a bigger likelihood to “gain core or framework funding agreements from donor governments, and in larger amounts. National level INGOs are also able to tap into the global financial and staff resources of their confederations” Bendana (2011).

Organizational capacity: INGOs’ significant monetary muscle and staff permit for devoted expertise regarding all their operations and projects, inferring that INGOs commonly boast both wide-ranging and better ability than national organizations. These organizations characteristically have employees taking up functions in administration, development project monitoring and evaluation, humanitarian action, resource mobilization, public relations, human resource management, finance management, and policy and advocacy, all of these in dedicated teams (Bendana, 2000).

Individual INGO national partners also have the capacity to call on the staff personnel and know-how of their confederacy participants. Conversely, employees of national CSOs are usually in control of numerous functions in the firm, and they are required to come up with considered assessments on the areas to provide their expertise (for example, they may be required to decide how much of their expertise could be dedicated to developing new projects, as opposed to maintaining existing ones, or vice versa).

It is worth noting that most such organizations now also employ a devoted team that concerns itself with monitoring, evaluation and development. This team lets the organization to evaluate the outcomes and influence of the undertaken projects, to ensure quality and improve measurable

outcomes, establish trust with stakeholders, beneficiaries and the state, and to give valuable feedback to financial contributors on how finances have been utilized and on the general impact of funded projects. These steps require a devoted and specialized team as it is resource consuming, and takes a lot of time, and many lesser national CSOs have restricted ability to embark on it, focusing majority of their resources and time on ensuring accountability just among the donors and the public who finance their projects.

Range of partnerships: Here, although most smaller organizations in donor states assume a corporative methodology to development projects, INGOs habitually operate across a larger variety of partnerships, and boast the benefit of bringing to these partnerships larger monetary and more proven expertise and understanding. Similar to their smaller counterparts, INGOs characteristically work together with smaller NGOs in the Global South. However, these corporation in the Global South transcends across all sectors, including the private sector, local communities and the state. INGOs are gradually joining forces with academic and research establishments, and even with the private sector, in the planning and carriage of programs, and finding the best way to ensure development after assessing the funds at their disposal. Sometimes these organizations may work together with other INGOs, “but are less likely to do so with national donor-country CSOs” (Bendana, 2000).

Legitimacy and influence: INGOs’ size and scope, worldwide influence, big employee teams, choice of programmes and partner organizations and capability to exhibit outcomes and assign them a touch of professionalism, trustworthiness and reliability amongst the citizenry and the

fund raisers. Therefore, INGOs have a moderately higher visibility than their smaller counterparts, both with the public and with state and other stakeholders. Even though states need INGOs to meet strict worthiness and responsibility requirements, they mostly look at the biggest INGOs as reputable development enablers that have demonstrated high standards and, in consequence, as reliable avenues for the distribution and transfer of aid. In contrast, national NGOs, despite proving to be legitimate actors, they occasionally have a more challenging time proving their suitability for funding, because often times, they do not possess the credibility, scope, range of partners and repute that INGOs enjoy.

Superior visibility and repute also mean that INGOs can uphold their advantageous standing because they have a better relationship with most of the stakeholders and they can pull and command significantly larger resources to continue to validate their position as trustworthy development actors, and in turn, continue to raise funding.

These reasons also point to the fact that these international organizations can boast “better standing and ‘voice’ with decision makers, funding agencies and within policy processes” Bendana (2000). INGOs are also typically more likely than their local counterparts to control the local and global development strategies — making them “among the most powerful members of civil society (although the latter can be effective working in coalition, often with INGOs)” (Bendana 2000). These organizations are normally more equipped to partake in international alliances and operations, and are able to work in a considerably more interactive and influential role.

#### **2.1.4 INGOs: Scope and Levels of Operation**

It is particularly vital in the exploration of INGO matters to analyze their scope and level of operation, in the interest of separating and locating them away from other types of nongovernmental Organizations. “Failure to do so can contribute to the already existing political confusion concerning the roles of NGOs” (Bendana, 2000). This study will focus on NGOs that work across country borders, often times with membership from actors from several state, and these organizations have an international mission statement.

List and Salamon (1999) restated that NGOs are “organizations that operate outside the state apparatus.” Undeniably, this remains a necessity voiced in the international legal arena, strengthened by the descriptions of the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and Union of International Associations. NGOs “must be founded by private individuals; be independent of states; be oriented toward the rule of law; pursue public rather than private interests as an objective; demonstrate a transnational scope of activities; and possess [at least] a minimal organizational structure” (List & Salamon, 1999).

In terms of the level of operation of INGOs, academics have highlighted their multi-national characteristics that permits to the membership of other similar social enterprises (Pfeiffer, 2003; Boli and Thomas, 1997). INGOs are able to come up with objectives that cover national territories and “they are non- profit making bodies.” Pfeiffer (2003) reminded us that Public International

Law distinguishes INGOs “as privately-established institutions that organize non-profit, non-state multi-national activities for the global society.” Meaning, these organizations are NGOs that include participants from different populations, are not for profit and have an autonomous managing structure. Other similar studies have further described INGOs as “possessing branches and holding activities in the borders of at least two or more countries and having the following features of being structured, communal, non-profit, autonomous, voluntary, non-religious, non-political, charitable, legitimate and international” (Boli and Thomas, 1997). Besides outspreading their objectives and functions across borders, members of INGOs often possess different nationalities or ethnicities, and these organizations source and use funds with an international perspective in mind. Thus, the definition of an INGO can be summarized as “an organization that operates across borders, takes part in charitable activities and has the features of non-governmental organizations” (Pfeiffer, 2003).

Boli and Thomas (1997) weighed in on some of the operations of INGOs. They opine that, in addition to the plentiful benefits that INGOs enjoy that allow them to more aggressively participate in global issues, “developments in networking capabilities, organizational structure and activity genre are also networking benefits INGOs enjoy.” At the functional level, INGOs are look to influence sectors that involve emergency and disaster aid and “relief, educational activities and assisting developing countries in their projects through the use of its vast resources and established relief work.” Societies such as World Vision and Save the Children aggressively contribute in the businesses of all member states. The advancement of INGOs’ objectives and

undertakings is often attained by communicating to states, multi-national corporations and the public. INGOs carry unambiguous policy aims and ideas and the objectives of these organizations are promoted through influence and engagement. Furthermore, INGOs frequently focus on altering existing programmes and “they appear radical at times” as opined by Chabbott (1999).

### **2.1.5 INGOs and Human Security: A Global Perspective**

Although conventional security studies and international relations academicians continue to be skeptical regarding the concept of human security, in conflict that it is too ambiguous and expansive a notion to be valuable “either analytically or practically”, policy makers are gradually acknowledging the significance of human security as a policy outline (Hadiwinata (2004). Indeed, INGOs around the globe have wholly accepted the notion of human security as an analytical framework.

Hadiwanita (2004) observed that INGOs engage in human security issues pursuing three areas: firstly, human security deals with key INGO objectives regarding matters such as health provision, education, and advocacy. When these organizations work with communities or states, they are usually set to alleviate suffering in terms of poverty, a lack of education services, limited access to essential and basic needs, and human rights violations. These constitute the primary areas that human security policy makers and scholars seek to address. As such, INGOs often look to seize the opportunity to participate and alleviate these challenges as part of their contribution to the human security agenda. The second reason is that participation in such activities serves their own

selfish purposes; it allows them a good standing with regards to donors, the public, and governments. Contributing to such activities enables INGOs to expand their huge resources, including monetary vaults, attracting elite talent and expertise, and most importantly, allowing them a good reputation with regard to their donors and the wider public. Last but not least, participation in human security issues allows “NGOs the opportunity to become more sustainable and enduring. INGOs’ activities are often condemned for being short-lived due to their focus on short and midterm initiatives” Hadiwinata (2004). Realting to human security intitatives will necessitate these organizations to escalate their attention to preventive processes and come up with longer-term objectives and projects.

Michael (2002) acknowledges that INGOs are visible Human Security actors, both in the North and in the South of the globe. She opines that: “...the activities of Amnesty International and the World Wildlife Fund are regularly covered by media organizations across the globe. The successes of these and other INGOs in providing health care, education, economic opportunities and human rights advocacy to millions of people are also well-known...” Michael (2002) continues to state that “such NGOs have made a major contribution to human development across the South, particularly in the fields of health and nutrition, education and the environment. They have also played a crucial role in ensuring human security for millions of people during emergency relief situations.” According to Michael (2002), this part was exemplified by INGO actions in Mozambique after the state was faced by a series of hurricanes and rainstorms in the year two thousand, in India in the year two thousand and one after a devastating quake overwhelmed one of the cities, in the Horn of Africa area when

the latest food security issues and political unrest struck, and the same can be said in the middle East region. “It is a role which they, as large organizations with direct fundraising links in the North and a proven track record with Northern governments and international bodies, are particularly adept at playing” (Michael, 2002).

Concerning the connected areas of emergency and humanitarian action, INGOs contribute as vital players in overall, attainment of human security (Dwivedy, 2012). Dwivedy (2012) distinguishes this functionality by bringing up the example of the ICRC, “another organization which developed from a small national relief organization to a multinational charity, with networks in many countries of the world.” Currently, the functionality of NGOs has also extended to comprise the proclamation and ensuring the observation of human rights, together with the quest for peace and condemning the use of violence. “The best-known NGO in this category is Amnesty International, which dates back to 1961; today it has more than 2.2 million members spread through 150 countries” (Dwivedy, 2012).

### **2.1.6 INGOs and Human Security in Africa**

Njoku (2006) explored the entry of NGOs into Africa. With the ever increasing levels of poverty in Africa, Njoku (2006) pointed out the ever increasing relevance of NGOs in the continent. Indeed, the NGOs have increased both in types, number, focus and size. With a significant part of the continent suffering from emergency situations, food insecurity, drought, just to name a few challenges, the role of NGOs has been greatly appreciated. For instance, the drought hit Mali and Niger, and the violent conflict in South Sudan have attracted the attention of many NGOs from around the world. The mishandling of affairs by leaders within the continent, the political instability and civil unrest, and the general noticeable lack of development, that have been the

cause of the numerous issues in Africa, all see to it that NGOs remain relevant currency in the continent.

With conviction, Njoku (2006) laments, the continent is in a poor situation. A significant number of the African people live in absolute poverty, Africa has the biggest number (twenty) of the least life friendly states in the world (UNDP, 2005), “and there is a persistent lack of access to the basic things of life like water, health care, electricity, shelter, and food. Over time, NGOs have taken on the gauntlet to fight perceived injustices in the system, whether they are caused by poor governance or corruption.” Similarly, they have situated themselves to function as channels for distributing help attained from Western donors to the continent and evaluation of government conduct in various zones of global concern and both state and regional dialogue. Nowadays, NGOs allocate “between 10% and 20% of all aid transferred to Africa, and the US government transfers about 40% of its aid programs through NGOs” (Manji and O’Coill, *ibid*).

To this effect, NGOs now play an indispensable role in the African development agenda, pointing out and ensuring knowledge on wide-ranging concerns such as trade issues, debt management, effective governance and climate change. For example, “agents of Oxfam and ActionAid were reportedly part of a Millennium Development Committee set up under the chairmanship of the Nigerian President, Olusegun Obasanjo, to monitor the outcome of the debt relief granted Nigeria by the Paris Club” (Sankore, 2005). Consequently, these organizations better explained as “a vast institutional and disciplinary nexus of official agencies, practitioners, consultants, and other miscellaneous experts producing and consuming knowledge about the

developing world” (Manji and O’Coill, *ibid*), a segment that includes the continent of Africa. These happenings have been the trigger for their increased presence in the continent at the community, national and regional levels. The increased focus by NGOs on issues like poverty and livelihoods may be proven “from the fact that Concern Worldwide, an International Northern charitable NGO that provides humanitarian and development aid to combat extreme poverty in developing countries, employed 174 expatriates and roughly 5,000 national staff working in ten developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Haiti” (UNCTAD, 2005).

INGOs rose to be considered as noteworthy providers and players in the relief and economic growth sectors of states after the 2nd World War subsided. In Africa, with most having achieved their independence in the nineteen fifties and sixties, INGOs have prided themselves on being a helping hand in stabilizing the economies of these countries. Nasong’o (2017) illustrates this point by saying that “one can no longer pretend to understand African politics without a critical understanding of the relations between NGOs and African states.” In the span of the last fifty years or thereabouts, “African nations and other developing countries have seen a massive increase in INGO activity as governments become less able to meet demand for services because of economic decline and high population growth” (Obiyan, 2005; Walsh and Lenihan, 2006).

Ermias (2013) observes that the entry of INGOs into the African continent was encouraged not only by need for relief, but also by the need for the organizations themselves to safeguard their continuous endurance. International based firms such as OXFAM arose in the 2nd World War ravaged Europe as a conduit for ensuring social welfare aid and making the recovery efforts easier. However, sooner rather than later, their mandate was accomplished and they made up their minds to introduce their services to developing states instead of folding up.

The mandate of these organizations in the Global South has also been depicted “as creating a continuity of welfare services initiated by foreign missionaries when African countries were under colonial control” (Hearn, 2007). Initially, they dedicated their time and efforts on giving out typically charitable services in the local and sidelined areas of the Global South. Specifically, “the lack of capacity of newly independent African countries to serve people located in the remote parts of their territories became a staging ground for the proliferation of INGOs” (Obiyan, 2005). In the case of Ethiopia, for instance, Ermias (2013) testified that the aid that was welcomed into the nation from NGOs amplified intensely from “444 million dollars in 2004 /05 to 537.4 million dollars in 2006/07.”

INTRAC (2015) illustrates that in Africa, where space for civil society is constrained, politics are volatile, there is social, political and economic instability, and where tensions within communities or between political and economic elites could erupt into violence or repression, INGOs have served well to wither these storms. As the INTRAC (2015) demonstrates, there is a role for INGOs in these contexts: providing emergency assistance for civil rights activists; ensuring that marginalized groups get their voices heard; nurturing spaces for building trust between citizens, communities and the state. But INTRAC (2015) also identifies that INGOs in Africa, and subsequently, their donors, “need to reach further and deeper in their understanding of the contexts. They have to take stock of the historical lessons of getting it wrong. They have to recognize that while they may think they are doing a good job, local actors may take a very different view.” INGOs have to ensure that, when the situation is no longer considered to be

‘complex’ or ‘fragile’ or ‘charged’, local organizations are strong enough, legitimate enough, sustainable enough, and grounded enough to continue the fight alone. In East Africa, Nasong’o (2017) observes that the nature and types of NGOs in the three East African countries reflect the socio-economic and political context of each respective country. Uganda, for instance, has peace and human rights organizations as the most visible. Kenya, on the other hand, has many NGOs promoting democracy and civil rights.

Williams (2018), in assessing why INGOs are moving to the Global South, observed that under the “localisation agenda of integrating more local actors in the humanitarian and development ecosystem, some INGOs are looking to adapt their discourse and structures.” Repositioning their head offices to developing countries is a noteworthy expression of this revolution. Nevertheless, the effects of making such a change is still being assessed.

A significant number of studies explored for this study show a change in geopolitical context as a significant contributor in resolutions to ponder transfer of offices. New actors and non-conventional players are coming through: their increasing ability and influence together with the motivation to chase through more self-directed development objectives is therefore moving INGOs to reconsider their positions.

While relocation is rousing substantial attention among INGOs, only a minority have seen through these plans. Forsch (2018) recognizes three case studies: “ActionAid, Oxfam and ACORD. Given the relative newness of relocation as a practice, relocation experiences might appear as little more than symbolic. However, the cases of ActionAid, Oxfam and ACORD

suggest that structural change followed a values-based transformation within the organization” (Forsch, 2018).

Williams (2018) confirms that there exists a shortage in studies noticing the theme of repositioning. Even though internationalization and localization are assessed, many studies regularly only look at relocation with lacking depth and focus. Besides, few reports have made an effort to assess the first movers and learn from their experience. There is a lack of empirical evidence or observation on the impacts that relocation has had on organizations; indeed, given the newness of relocation it may still be too early to observe such effects. Most coverage comes from reports about the state and future of civil society, blog posts, and opinion pieces in newspapers; discussions are often anecdotal and there is little rigorous academic study.

### **2.1.7 INGOs in Kenya: Emergence and Growth**

Looking at the state of NGOs in Africa, Hearn (2007) notes that “in the course of the last twenty-five years, Africa has witnessed an astounding growth in the number and influence of international nongovernmental organizations.” Hearn (2007) estimates that, with just two hundred and sixty seven registered Kenyan NGOs in late nineteen eighties, the NGO sector rose to approximately two thousand five hundred by the mid two thousands, an expansion of nine times, in a period of only fifteen or so years. This recent explosion of Kenya's NGO segment has had a significant effect on the availability of public services to the poor and marginalized.

Karuti Kanyiga, in his study, focuses on foreign international NGOs as they work with a much wider sectorial and “geographic base in the country” than their indigenous and local grass roots based counterparts (Kanyinga, 1995).

The origins of Kenya's NGOs can primarily be traced in colonial times to the philanthropy period. Amid this early period, the exercises of NGOs generally centered on welfare. As Kameri-Mbote (2000) sufficiently discusses, “these activities later changed and developed to cover not only the provision of services but also political action and advocacy.” The advent of modern democracy may be said to have ushered in the age of an active civil society. In the time following the start of multi-party politics in the 1990s, these civic organizations came to a head in Kenya. “This is largely attributable to the fact that political pluralism greatly enhanced the space for legal implementation of the right of freedom of association and the institutions of democracy” (Kameri-Mbote, 2000).

Over the past years, civil society has increased considerably in Kenya and its impact (Mulama, 2008). Systematized civil society has undergone considerable growth and popularity since the collapse of the one-party dictatorship in nineteen ninety one and the suppression at the end of the 1970s and 1980s. In addition, a vast and vibrant variety of social fields is the civil society which has arisen in the country (Mulama, 2008).

## **2.2 Levels and State of Human Security**

### **2.2.1 Human Security: Definitions, Origins and History**

Human security is a term which points out human life's protection as the core goal of national and international security policy. The idea is a paradigm shift from the view of state centric security

as a proper philosophical framework to understand human weaknesses. In his introduction to the Human Security analysis, Kaldor (2007) observes that human security is under threat, is and susceptible threats who are no longer governments, and these threats are widespread, and this vulnerability is amplified by "new wars" in which stakeholders "are no longer states", no longer working in the mode of "old wars". In addition, these latest conflicts are associated with other environmental challenges such as disease, natural disasters, misery and a general lack of basic needs and amenities. "Yet our security conceptions, drawn from the dominant experience of the Second World War, do not reduce that insecurity; rather they make it worse." (Kaldor, 2007). Similarly, Mahbub ul Haq proposes human security as a new paradigm of security: 'the world is entering a new era in which the very concept of security will change-and change dramatically. Security will be interpreted as: security of people, not just territory. Security of individuals, not just nations. Security through development, not through arms. Security of all the people everywhere - in their homes, in their jobs, in their streets, in their communities, in their environment.'" (Haq, 1995).

Since the mid-1990s the term has been used more and more (Gasper 2010). Despite its emphasis principally on state policy and the hunt for modern international security and development policies since the cold war, it is being used by civil society groups, on a larger spectrum of contemporary issues, including the advocacy of migrants and global warming, (O'Brien *et al.*, 2010; Gasper, 2010; Baraza, 2018).

Study and degree programs regarding human security have been established by academic institutions. Still, the definition of the concept remains questioned. The concept and attempts to

establish related global agendas are numerous and divergent. Strategies to encourage and institutionalize human security for State foreign agendas have contributed to criticism at UN level. The relevance and the added value of the term has arisen problems, with both advocates and critics describing their viewpoints in what is now a vast literature. Many experts in the international arena, in both scholarship and practice, maintain a skepticism of its practicality, utility and political application. Criticized also as vague and subject to as numerous explanations, there are concerns as to what exactly the work it does. “Is it a full scale conceptual paradigm, a doctrine for a new global security policy, a norm, or just a term” as Paris (2001) questions in his assesment “Human Security: Paradigm Shift or Hot Air?”

The notion of the human as a reference point for protection is not recent. The idea of the state as a benchmark for defense of the 20th century only solidified in the 1800s when the threats to the state was perhaps the most significant security concern after the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars; “the reification of the state was the product of specific historical circumstances” (MacFarlane and Khong, 2006). Earlier, the notion of security was wider, denoting to “both the state and individual” (Rothschild, 1995).

For the early Greek community, the city-state allowed for the directive and defense conditions necessary for human activity and happiness (MacFarlane and Khong, 2006). When it comes to Rome, “*securitas*” represented an inner state of calm, peace and “freedom from care” (Rothschild, 1995). Even if the word had not been used in early documents, the UN emphasizes on human security. In the wake of the atrocities of the Second World War, the establishment of the Charter of the United Nations of 1945 was inspired by the desire for nations to act together in

order to preserve the rights and basic human rights of persons and acknowledge the conflict between the citizen and his government. These principles were set down in the universal human rights conventions, HDR 1994 (UNDP 1994), which is also recognized as the pioneer of the usage of the word, stating that it is hard to come up with a comprehensive description of human security, as human security is more readily defined, as are other essential terms, including human rights, by being absent than being present.

The idea of human security continues to evolve and the concept is not widely recognized. The word was described in different ways by different academicians, politicians and scholars; a new hypothesis or idea, as a point of departure for research, a global vision, "a political agenda, or a policy" (Tadjbakhsh, 2005). Although the meaning of the term cannot be exactly accepted, the advocates of the approach have agreed that focus should be transferred from a government-centered approach to a people-centered protection approach (Tadjbakhsh, 2005).

The Commission on Human Security (CHS), in an analysis, *Human Security Now*, explains the concept as a plan:

“To protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhances human freedoms and human fulfilment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms, freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations. It means using processes that build on people’s strengths and aspirations. It means creating political, social, environmental, economic, military and cultural systems that together give people the building blocks of survival, livelihood and dignity” (CHS, 2003, p. 4).

According to the former UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan, human security:

“Encompasses human rights, good governance, access to education and health care, ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfil his or her potential. Every step in this direction is also a step towards reducing poverty, achieving economic growth and preventing conflict. Freedom from want, freedom from fear and the freedom of future generation to inherit a healthy natural environment—these are the interrelated building blocks of human and therefore national security” (Annan, 2000, p. 1).

Further human security requires the need to deal with the same challenges that both the former secretary general and the CHS so firmly call attention to in order, through multi-dimensional policies to promote lasting peace and prosperity. As previously stated, the idea of human protection continues to evolve, and scientists and lawmakers are still debating just what the concept entails and involves. For the first time, a comprehensive description of the term was rendered by the UN Development Program (Note 2) (UNDP, 1994) and the major components were formulated. From to this study, human security “encompasses economic security, food security, health security, environmental security, personal security, community security and political security.” In this definition;

- *Economic security*: assures basic income; access to employment and resources;
- *Food security*: physical and economic access to food for all people at all times. Hundreds of millions of people in the world remain hungry either through local unavailability of food or, more often, through lack of entitlements or resources to purchase food;
- *Health security*: access to medical treatment and improved health conditions. Poor people in

general have less health security, and in developing countries the major causes of death are infectious and parasitic diseases;

- *Environmental security*: living in a healthy physical environment that is spared from desertification, deforestation and other environmental threats that endanger people's survival.
- *Personal security*: individual security from physical violence. Threats can take several forms; for example, threats from the State, foreign states, other groups of people (ethnic tension), individuals or gangs; threats directed against women or children based on their vulnerability and dependence; threats to self (e.g., suicide, drug use, etc.);
- *Community security*: most people derive their security from membership of a social group (family, community, organization, political grouping, ethnic group, etc.). Tensions often arise between these groups due to competition over limited access to opportunities and resources;
- *Political security*: living in a society that guarantees basic human rights and freedom of expression" (Hussein, Gnisci, & Wanjiru, 2004).

These facets of human security are intertwined and related aspects. For starters, if the a people is vulnerable in terms of political stability , the other facets of human security will indeed be affected. Therefore, fostering human protection includes protecting citizens from threats to illness, malnutrition, insecurity, violence, violence, social and political tensions and government oppression, and destruction of the environment.

As an integral principle focusing on individuals, human security relies instead of state safety, but on the well-being of people and their societies. The security of persons from vital and systemic

threats, livelihoods and integrity challenges are discussed, including the negative effects of risky development strategies.

Human security explores both conflict and development issues such as peace and sustainability.

Shin-wha Lee (2004) notes that “addressing human security requires that we take a comprehensive view of all threats to human survival and dignity, with special emphasis on promoting human rights, social development, and environmentally sound and sustainable development, as well as eliminating violence, social strife, terrorism, state atrocities, genocide and discrimination of all kinds.”

Safety in the past was a shield against external invasion for nation-states and their territories or the preservation of a given country's national security. However this is a narrow description of the term, which focuses on the protection of a country rather than on an individual or a community's welfare. Although it's necessary to guarantee the stability of the nation-state to ensure the well-being of its citizens, it is not an adequate condition for protecting people and the entire world from the instability created by hunger, environmental destruction, unemployment, loss of human rights and unjustified access to basic human needs. The new definition of protection goes beyond national security concerns and concentrates on human welfare and stresses the well-being and security of individuals (UNDP, 1994).

According to UNDP (1994), “if peoples’ capabilities are improved and opportunities availed to them, they can make an immense contribution to their own development, that of their local communities, their countries; and the world as a whole.” In its Resolution of 25 October 2012, the United Nations General Assembly emphasized the value of the human security concept as a

valuable mechanism to help Member States recognize and resolve diverse and cross-cutting threats to their people's survivorship, livelihoods and dignity. To this effect, the United Nations General Assembly underlined the collective meaning of the concept of human security in the following manner:

- People's right to live out of hunger and desperation, with peace and equality. Everyone, particularly people at risk, have the right to freedom from fear and from desire, to enjoy equal rights, and to grow his or her human capacity entirely;
- The concept requires for ethical, systematic, contextual and preventive reactions that promote the protection and equality of all individuals and communities; and
- The concept acknowledges and also acknowledges the relationship amongst civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights that lead to stability, progress, and human dignity (United Nations, 2012, p. 1).

At least three innovations have played a role in defining the defense concept (High Commission for Refugees of the United Nations (UNHCR), 2000). The first is the shift of analyzes to consideration of domestic causes of unrest, such as social tensions, ethnic tensions, deprivation, jobs, crime and terrorism from a restricted emphasis on sustainable security in the defense of national sovereignty. The prevalent implications are mass displacements, take the shape of domestic or "cross-border displacement and/or refugee movements" (Kumssa & Jones, 2014).

The second important evolution is that the eventual correlation between citizens' wellbeing and public security is understood. Economic, social, environmental or civil obstacles can be non-military to peace. The country cannot be less than challenged by armed invasion by drug

smuggling, illicit trafficking, corruption, and insurgency, violations of human rights, illness and hunger.

Finally, we are becoming more informed, and often need foreign assistance or even action, that national and sub-national challenges are feasible. National humanitarian concerns can unexpectedly be geopolitical and grow into regional issues, similar to what happened in many countries in the Middle East, horn of Africa, etc.

Noting how the Commission on Human security observed, “the aim Human Security is to protect the vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedom and human fulfilment. Human security means protecting fundamental freedoms—freedoms that are the essence of life. It means protecting people from critical (severe) and pervasive (widespread) threats and situations (United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security” (UNTFHS), 2009).

These issues are resolved by the security and mobilization of people and populations specifically impacted by the numerous political, socio-economic and environmental challenges.

The notion human security is also founded upon 4 critical values:

- *“People-centred*: individuals and communities are at the centre of analysis and intervention for the human security programme. It considers a broad range of conditions that threaten the survival, livelihood and dignity of individuals and communities.
- *Comprehensive*: human security calls for responses that are comprehensive, multi-sectoral and collaborative. This ensures coherent and effective policies that eliminate duplication and promotes integrated solutions to the problems so as to bring about more effective and tangible

improvements in the daily lives of individuals and local communities.

- *Context-specific*: the human security approach to development recognizes that the causes and manifestations of threats vary considerably within and across countries, and therefore the solution to these problems should be embedded in local realities and contexts.

- *Prevention-oriented*: looking at the root causes of a particular threat, human security identifies the structural (external or internal), as well as the behavioural changes that are needed to help mitigate the impact, and, where possible, prevent the occurrence of current and future threats” (UNTFHS, 2009).

Economic prosperity, social change, and environmental sustainability development programs have contributed to higher incomes, availability of social care, and changes in the environment. However the poorest and most disadvantaged populations never gain the advantage of these programs. Although some groups profit, forces like globalisation, such as poor farmers, poor and illegitimate refugees, have had detrimental effects on disadvantaged sectors. In Sub-Saharan Africa, an area further destroyed by war and the HIV/AIDS pandemic, there is a most conspicuous underside of the growth. Whilst in sub-Saharan Africa human security issues are important, efforts to introduce an orientation of human protection into construction and planning policies are still scarce. In the meantime, several other countries such as Australia, Finland, the Netherlands, Romania, and Ukraine have taken up the topic of human protection and included it in their national security policies (Upreti, Bhattarai, & Wagle, 2013).

For example, Canada has related its external policies to the philosophy of human security, while Japan has taken a move forward and has set up a UN system public safety fund to advance and

promote the definition, values and practices of human security, and to deepen its awareness and recognition within the international community with a view to ensuring sustainable peace and prosperity. (Shinoda, 2004).

The orientation of human protection includes meeting the needs of the vulnerable and incorporating them into planning plans. Human security analyses recognize risks to sustainable growth and risk factors within populations. “Protecting and empowering people are the two important strategies for achieving the goal of human security” (UNTFHS, 2009). Protection entails “strategies set up by states, international agencies, and the private sector to shield people from menaces”; while empowerment is defined as “strategies that enable people to develop their resilience to difficult situations” (CHS, 2003, p. 10). Consequently, protection is a “top down” plan to guard individuals in a methodical, inclusive and proactive manner, whereas empowerment denotes a “bottom up” plan to enhance the competences and institutions of people and communities in a bid to “develop their own potential and find ways of dealing with human security threats by themselves” (UNTFHS, 2009).

As much as this principle is honorable and significant, critique is not empty. Some say that the principle is too idealistic" and that strategic power policy in today's internationally rapidly developing environment, exacerbated by a rapidly evolving international structure, is not taken into account (Chen & Narasimhan, 2002).

Some others (Oberleitner, 2005) suggest, with a pretext of humanitarian interest, that human security could result in the internal politics of sovereign states. Aduloju and Pratt (2014) contend

that the definition is too abstract and broad, rendering it difficult to prioritize its policies and activities, which explains perhaps the most vital critique of the notion.

Nonetheless, the term has developed into a key paradigm for tackling traditional social-economic and traditional challenges, including human rights, the drug trade and the trafficking of narcotics, human rights abuses, political exploitation and environmental destruction in the international relations, development, and security areas of study.

### **2.2.2 The Levels and State of Human Security: A Global Perspective**

During the last couple of years, human security has grown into a chief focus of many states, institutions and social players looking for ground-breaking methods and ways of embarking upon the several non-military threats to peace and security. The dynamic and frequently overestimated ties between disarmament, human rights and progress are demonstrated by human security. human security. The circumstances that are contributing to genocide, civil war, human rights abuses, global disease outbreaks, environmental destruction, forced and slave labour and starvation in an increasingly globalized world today emanate from the most pernicious hazards to human protection. The foregoing is an evaluation of the state and human security levels worldwide.

These two scholars give an enlightening study of the state of human security in the Arab world. Where suspicions remain about the Arab world confronted with many impediments according to Chourou and Aravena (2005), they were dissolved in the UN Development Program's first Arab Human Development Study 2002 (AHDR1) (UNDP, 2002a). The study states: "A remarkable improvement in fostering human growth and reducing poverty has been made over the last five decades. That being said, there is still plenty to be done to cope with poverty and mismatch wait times (UNDP, 2002a). There were significant issues: war and workplace insecurity; non-

interlocutory governance; gender inequality; inadequate management of the growth mechanism that causes multiple types of misery and many economic and social problems; and an inability to learn, integrate, use and export the information.

Concentrating on the Asian region, Acharya (2001) found out that the “debate on human security is relatively new to Asia. This region has traditionally been associated with the national security paradigm. Multilateral and normative concepts of security have not found much resonance in Asia except at a rhetorical level since the Gandhian notions of non-violence held sway in pre-independence India.” There are two reasons that meant Asia was inhospitable for anything but a pure and concentrated Public Security policy; the need to maintain the sovereignty and the new supremacy of the post-colonial nation-state and the relative lack of viable democracies. With regard to growth and modernisation Asian countries have become the world's biggest success tales, but human rights challenges (China, Myanmar and beyond) make international headlines including refugee situations, terror and drug trafficking as the main concerns.

A majority of Asian governments have stressed the need for national security at the expense of human rights, often threatening political opponents and racial minorities by stressing self-construction cultural differentiation. Globalizing influences and the societal changes brought on by emerging technology and global connectivity appear to be a reorientation of the new generation, in particular. The continent faces a delicate balance between China's expanded military spending against rising unemployment, the stressed service sector and the problems of pollution, issues of the balance in many parts of the country - smoke, natural resources and insecurity of food - between the secular authority and religious fundamentalism, among other items. Current threats to human life starvation, more frequent in development countries, new virus pandemics that defy

conventional medical treatment – are outside the typical boundaries of the national protection resource (Acharya, 2001).

As an ideology and a union, Europe has experienced since the end of the Cold War an unprecedented transition. Much of this dramatic transition has only intensified in recent history, both with the growth of EU membership, increasing foreign-policy freedom and evolving appreciation (especially with France's 2005 'no' votes to endorse the European constitution) for differences on Europe's prospects and identification (Liotta and Taylor, 2006).

As elucidated by Ağır *et al* (2016), “due to the transnational nature of non-traditional security issues in Europe, the role of the security is no longer limited solely to the defense of the national territory, but to defend interests of a whole region even a continent.” In attempt to settle the growing security threats for example, it is in the European Union's (EU) interest to permanently stabilize the Western Balkans zone. In this regard, the definition of the role of the EU in the Western Balkans can be seen as redefining human security. Since the problems pertaining not only to the state, but also to individuals and societal groups should be discussed as to protection. The human protection problems in the countries are becoming increasingly relevant

The Western Balkans and Europe as a whole. Ivan Krastev believes that "levels vary between countries, but it is clear that most countries share common risks in all key safety areas - politics, society, the economy and the environment" (Krastev, 1999).

Looking at Switzerland, historical indifference and the physical existence (and thus influences) of various United Nations organizations in the world have clearly determined the Swiss Government's human security approach. It covers human rights, humanitarian problems and

displacement, civil peace building and gender concerns. There is an explicit human security policy administered by a Human Security Branch of the state's ministry of foreign affairs. “In 2005, this division had a budget of approximately CHF48 million (€31 million) for conflict transformation and the promotion of human rights, and earmarked around CHF10.5 million (€6.75 million) to support the ‘Geneva Centers’” (Kotsopoulos, 2006).

Kotsopoulos (2006) also assesses Canada’s focus on Human Security. He posits that “in Canada, under the initial leadership of Lloyd Axworthy, former Minister of Foreign Affairs, Canada has become a pacesetter in advocating a version of human security that focuses on ‘freedom from fear’. It has two main objectives: “to promote policy initiatives relating to human security at the multilateral level; for example, introducing a ban on anti-personnel landmines or establishing the International Criminal Court (ICC); to actively seek partnerships at the governmental and ‘bottom-up’ level (e.g. civil society) to promote human security issues. In 2002, the Canadian government established a Human Security Program (HSP) to implement this strategy, under the auspices of the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT), with an annual budget of C\$10 million (€7.2 million)” (Kotsopoulos, 2006).

### **2.2.3 Human Security in Africa**

The 1990's saw dramatic shifts in the essence of the conflict worldwide, as described in the earlier conversation. The marked reduction in conflicts between countries was contrasted with the dramatic rise in wars, conflicts and "emergencies" between States in the opposite direction

(Leaning and Arie, 2000). The modified condition, as opposed to it, needs at least a basic paradigm modification, if not a significant shift in the prevailing defense paradigm. As reported in the 1994 Human Development Report, "We must move from nuclear security to human security to another profound transition of thinking" (UNDP, 1994).

In much of post-colonial Africa, defense was understood to be state security by the monarch who also gradually identified himself as the embodiment of the state as his very unique sealed translation as the security of the regime. Domestic dissent and critical public policy critiques have been "threats to national security." As a result, institutionalized suppression of entire territories, communities and peoples was more frequently than not. Therefore the effects of Africa's conventional definition of defense were felt more through domestic repression than through external hostilities. In this way, "a security concept based on interstate relations" makes the state own its own a cause of insecurity for citizens" (Salih, 1999: 127; Abutudu, 2001). "States, therefore, are often the instruments that undermine the security of their citizens rather than maintaining safety to their citizens" (Abutundu, 2001).

Africa has historically been pursuing the extension of the concept of human protection according to Cilliers (2004). As an illustration, the African Non-Aggression and the Common Defense Agreement states: "Human security shall mean the safety of the individual to meet his or her basic needs; it shall also entail the establishment of the social, political, legal, military, environmental and cultural conditions necessary for the life, livelihood and dignity of the person, including the protection of human rights" (Cilliers, 2004).

During the last half century, West African nations have undergone intense changes and disparities that have been the reason for social, cultural, political or economic catastrophes that

contributed to insecurity. According to Gwénola (2006), some of the Human security concerns in the region comprise, firstly, “an identity crisis: West Africa is facing an identity crisis. The villages of Africa are no longer functioning. Exclusion is developing in African towns which reflect a form of social insecurity. Today, entire sections of societies are insecure: children, women and the elderly who are not adequately protected by laws or social relations. The stability of countries starts with that of the family, which is the first level of society. The essential role of fathers in the education of their children to promote peace was emphasized. Today, West Africa has also been affected by the breakdown of the family with divorces often leading to abandonment of women and children. Many of these children are easy recruits for armies and candidates for immigration.”

Furthermore, sexism against women is another issue. The government is responsible inadvertently for women's legal vulnerability through sexism. There are definitely legal framework structures that ensure the rights of women, but which the States have not adopted. The African Union Charter on Human and Peoples Rights for the Rights of Women, which took effect in November, the year two thousand and five, has been promoted by Governments.

The ratification was be a positive indication of securing and preserving women's rights against such insecurities. In addition, Gwénola (2006) listed cultural facets of human safety and endogenous methods to defend them, using magic or religious practices. Likewise, the dangers of "ethniation" as an identity defense tool, which threatens human protection and against which no State is safe, were also highlighted. Despite the social reforms that have not yet been completed,

there is little pride in Africa and in soccer stadiums. It is important to establish a new model of citizenry.

In the analysis of Fourie and Schönteich (2001), there is a substantial gain since the demise of apartheid that can be credited to the cause of human security. One of the most obvious successes of the 21 years of democracy is the right to vote, to decent education and primary health; to create an extensive healthcare system which has helped many people escape poverty; to provide million with affordable homes and basic services. South Africa has moved from instability to its neighbours, at regional and international levels, to a protector of stability on the continent, playing a leading role in diplomacy, for example in Burundi, DRC, and Sudan. But unemployment and poverty, systemic disparities within the economy, the lack of sufficient funding by some government agencies, and the inability of criminal justice structures to solve a variety of problems remain a hallucine for this nation.

Prior to the 1994 United Nations report, the relation between security and development was captured by a seminal Kampala document, drawn up in 1991 by a meeting hosted by President Yoweri Museveni of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), and then Chairman of the Africa Leadership Forum, Olusegun Obasanjo (Africa Leadership Forum 1991). The conference, which took place at the beginning of 1990s and the 21st century in Africa, was attended by over five hundred individuals, along with many current and previous national leaders. A Conference on Africa Security, Stability, Development and Co-operation (CSSDCA) was proposed to be held (Africa Leadership Forum, 1991) (Africa Leadership Forum, 1991) (Africa Leadership Forum, 1991).

It argued that “the erosion of insecurity and instability were major impediments to economic integration and the socio-economic transformation of Africa. Four areas of vulnerability or 'calabashes' had to be addressed: security, stability, development and cooperation.” Charting the values relevant to the security 'calabash', “the *Kampala Document* argued that the concept of security went beyond military considerations, and included economic, political and social dimensions: The security of a nation must be construed in terms of the security of the individual citizen to live in peace with access to basic necessities of life while fully participating in the affairs of his/her society in freedom and enjoying all fundamental human rights” (Africa Leadership Forum 1991).

The values behind the 'calabash' peace in Kampala include conformity with the rule of law, consideration for human rights and basic liberties, openness in the preparation of public agenda and the campaign of separation of state and religion. The document described swift physical and economic integration in the 'calabash' growth as essential to Africa's 21st century survival. They also discussed, instead of the current dependence on commodities manufacturing, the need for economic diversification. The key topics underlined were human capital growth, food auto-sufficiency, development of energy, commerce, transport, mobilization of financial resources and promotion of women's access to and complete engagement in decision-making.

The principles behind the stability of 'calabash' in Kampala include regard for the rule of law, respect for human rights and civil liberties, transparency in public policy development and promotion of State-religion separation. The paper identifies the swift incorporation of physical

and economic development into the 'calabash' development as crucial to the survival of Africa. They also spoke about the need for economic diversification, rather than the existing reliance on commodity production. The main issues emphasized were human capital development, food sovereignty, energy, trade, transport, financial resource mobilization and the promotion of women's ability to contribute, and to and comprehensively participate in policymaking.

#### **2.2.4 Kenya's Pursuit for Human Security**

Human security is a concept that includes many features, as well as “economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community, and political issues”. In Kenya, several of these parameters – every so often already disappointing, even using African standards as a benchmark – exemplified a deterioration during the late 20<sup>th</sup> century. “For instance, per capita gross domestic product (GDP) shrank by an annual average of 0.5 per cent in the period from 1990 to 2000, whereas per capita gross national product (GNP) had grown at an average annual rate of 3.1 per cent between 1965 and 1980. After decades of improvement, life expectancy is now falling dramatically. It dropped from 55 years in 1996 to 49 years in 2000, in part due to the AIDS pandemic” (UNDP 1996, cited in Brown, 2003). While there has been a strong change since 1990 in some areas, such as political independence, poverty in general shows no indication of being eased (Brown, 2003).

"The new Regionalism adds interactions to the intergovernmental and global organizations and includes the role of non-state actors, especially multinationals, emerging civil society organizations and other NGOs (non-governmental organisations), while the old regionalism

simply focuses on State actors." In its article on regionalism, the Breslin and Higgot (2000) states. Kenya has also adopted non-governmental actors in search of human welfare, amid strong development plans funded by the state.

Breslin and Higgot (2000) think first of all that this approach gives scientific proof and insight into the advantages of taking and connecting multiple research stages. This illustrates, among other aspects, the often unforeseen consequences of the policies and activities of western donors, including attempts to open the continent to economic globalization powers and the indirect increase in "ethnic clashes" in Kenya through donor-supportive liberalisation. Secondly, it stresses the importance of under' the State and its dynamic relations with 'civil society.' In neo-patrimonial structures, like Kenya, this is especially significant. Problematizing the ties between the state and society underlines the State's neglect of public safety and offers a critical insight into its role in promoting and even triggering a lot of violence.

Global leadership, the Western donors and the foundations of Bretton Wood, played a vital part in helping the Government of Kenya and thereafter, steeply decrease its amount of assistance and drive for change beyond the Cold War end. In summary, foreign players and powers are key for a complex view of the political and economic structure in Kenya, Breslin and Higgot (2000) say. In order to increase human security and encourage growth, the deleterious consequences of the Moi policies and practices would inevitably entail the coordinated efforts of the new government and of national non-government players, their foreign counterparts and donors.

## **2.3 The challenges and opportunities for INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security goals**

### **2.3.1 Challenges and opportunities for INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security around the Globe**

The entire study reveals that INGOs belong to a diverse and lively market. The figures indicate that there are more than 10 million registered CSOs in the country, with annual increases in non-profits, NGOs and charities. Estimates show that over 40,000 INGOs in France migrate across borders to provide growth and humanity assistance, or actively participate in lobbying programs for aid, foreign Rights employment (Hailey, 2016).

The seven biggest INGOs in the five years of 2007-2012 increased their profits to over 8 billion dollars (Baobab, 2015). It's not a static image and there are several new INGOs. The UK Charity Commission data shows that more than 400 new INGOs are registered annually (Hailey, 2016). Around ninety ninety five and twenty twelve the number of United Nations accredited NGOs almost quadrupled. In India alone, there are more than 3 million registered CSOs – an improvement over the past ten years of more than one million. The INGO Bangladeshi INGO BRAC is the biggest in the South and employing more than one hundred and twenty five people in eleven countries. However these numbers are just half as many obstacles facing INGOs around the world as others risk their own survival.

This changing and diverse world has produced fresh momentum in developing and changing the industry. Most of the need for restructuring or for further communication is spoken of. Disintermediation results from a decline in the number of intermediaries between the donor and the final beneficiary give rise to concerns. This has been mirrored in the funded policy

implemented by many donors, who transfer funding directly to NGOs in the South from foreign NGOs in the North. This involves talks to boost the cost-effectiveness and NGOs collaborating closer with the private sector and to build new structures for social enterprises (Hailey, 2016). There is demand on them by more productive use of Network and digital interconnection and using this technologies to facilitate program execution, to introduce modern SMART processes and strengthen international working.

The study of recent international trends studies indicates that Hailey (2016) reveals a variety of significant problems or topics that most likely impact on human security work of INGOs. Global warming and the resulting lack of capital, population shifts, spatial change in the "pockets of poverty," the impact of increasing inequalities, shifting patterns of influence between north and south and implications of expanded access to new technology and inventions. Projections of these "game changers" or mega-trends have prompted INGOs to question the tactics and capability they need to spend in if they are "future-fit" and are prepared to meet the challenges.

UIA (1977) dealt with some of the challenges faced at the time by INGOs. Alas, much of the items remain true, considering the time passed and the conclusion of the Cold War. Any of the issues described in the review are as follows. INGO's political inefficiency is the first problem. IGOs (such as UN) are state institutions and national governments, and INGOs can be policy-effective only by political engagement with these bodies. The grievances faced by many INGOs derive, at least partially, from the lack of political thought and acting and awareness that the purpose of these ties is to share power. The value of its political constituency is compounded by INGO ignorance towards any government appraisal of the INGO. Secondly, INGO identity is missing. It is not a well-defined category of organizations with shared goals that INGOs recognize, thus providing no

room for concerted action. UIA (1977) eventually pointed to the inability to organize INGOs. Whether INGOs repeat the tasks of one another, INGOs have significant difficulties to communicate with some co-ordinated activities with additional programs, interests, similar roles or common issues. The lack of large INGO federations with a shared role weakens their ability to behave in such conditions considerably, making it easier for them to maneuver and promote their separate actions (UIA 1977).

The status of INGOs has been destabilized by changes in international power relations, upsetting the standards and prospects that determine INGO conduct. As Davies (2014), INGOs have evolved, as is described previously, to grow on a wave with a new cycle taking place in that season that represents a hinged one. There have been many implications for INGOs due to the increasing dissemination of world power, and particularly the emergence as foreign players of the BRIC countries, Brazil, Russia, India and China. The first was the difficulty of intergovernmental decision-making. Although international decision-making at national level, more integrated to INGOs, presages the growth of IGOs such as the G20, with minimal provisions for INGO liaison, those emerging bodies can provide less room for INGOs to respond to citizens' concerns (CIVICUS 2014). In view of the rising economic and political influence of Southerner countries, many major INGOs, like Oxfam, are increasingly focusing on influencing them.

Secondly, these global developments have led to assaults against pro-Western INGO values like western democracy and human rights, enabling a number of regimes in developed countries to introduce a variety of INGO constraints (Hopgood, 2013). The character of the INGOs 'international room' has changed from these up-down obstacles. Historically, this region was rooted in liberal values. Many INGOs' authority was possibly because they are ideologically and

physically closely linked to this room (Hopgood, 2013). Thus, Hopgood (2013) has stressed that the supposedly normative values, as the top down viewpoint usually assumes, are embedded in very specific geographical and historical contexts.

Thirdly, these increasing threats to universal standards and bodies together have culminated in a general crisis of the international community weakening the role of developmental and humanitarian INGOs. In a changing environment marked by interdependent environment and dispute problems, a larger spectrum of foreign contributors and pervasive inequality, INGOs tend to be increasingly unsuitable to meet the difficulties of countries that are more prone to crisis than others (Ramalingam and Mitchell, 2014). The names of many major INGOs within the field are intimately connected to UN organisations and donors' principles, beliefs and traditions, which work together with them. Therefore a reduction in the reputation of the aid mechanism could have major consequences on these INGOs' validity.

In line with global power changes, the backlash against INGOs in a number of Asian, African, Latin American and Middle East countries has been well reported (Brechenmacher and Carothers, 2012; Tandon and Brown, 2013; Dupuy et al. 2015; van der Borgh and Terwindt, 2012). The stresses from governments and political parties were more aggressively extended to national and international nongovernmental organizations with international funds, which limited government access to foreign finance and decreased those operating more politically (Dupuy et al. 2015).

The ICNL 2013 report documents how governments have created barriers to the work of INGOs through restrictions on foreign funding and by restricting meetings across different areas, such as Egypt, Russia, Sudan, Aserbaijan, Bangladesh, Israel, Malaysia and the United Kingdom. A new

report by IKNL documents the international center for non-profit law. In several cases more supervision and enforcement by states has been subjected to criticism by INGOs that they have a negative effect on local faith, traditions and community or appear to secretly support Northern States' agenda.

### **2.3.2 Challenges of INGOs in Pursuit of Human Security: An African Perspective**

It is important that NGO action to increase, particularly within the developed world is brought to greater heart with specific forms of and implications of discrimination (Mulinge & Mufune, 2003). In Mulinge and Mufine (2003), the key goal is to target about 250 million individuals in the developing world employed in fields such as food security, community development, human rights, gender, the environment and agricultural development.

It is not shocking that Kang'ethe and Manomano (2014) clarify that even though South Africa is home to countless NGOs in the African region, maybe because of a variety of community development problems that the nation is faced, such as extreme poverty, HIV/AIDS preponderance, etc.

The impacts and interventions of these NGOs are not sufficiently clear. It is a cankerworm that severely harms the competitiveness of organisations, nongovernmental organizations that cannot withstand corruption and its repercussions of mixing up corporate finances, paying phantom employees, misusing organisation's resources such as cars for the sake of personal benefit etc (Agere, 2014: Coetzer, 2013). In the leadership circles of African countries, the NGO fraternity can echo and imitate the state of corruption. Reports in several NGOs have shown that those responsible for institutional financing exploit them for personal use and in many situations, corrupt access to financial help.

The suggestion by Kang'ethe and Manomano (2014) is that the work performed in South Africa by NGOs in child welfare programs, the growth of the culture, therapy etc is not sufficiently conspicuous. The position and the mission of NGO brotherhood as a government partner in growth is therefore not sufficiently fulfilled. It is because of South Africa's climate of the brotherhood of NGOs. The NGO problem is exacerbated by insufficient finance and the shortage of permanent social workers, incompetence and lack of public good will. If the quality and efficacy of NGOs are to be introduced, the government will be involved in solving these problems.

Leadership in INGOs is also a matter of concern considering the highly personalized nature of leadership in the sector. The industry is rife with empirical histories of how paternalistic governments, 'charismatic autocrats,' or 'guru syndrome' have a negative effect (Hailey and James, 2004). On the one hand, those leaders show a deep dedication to people and services and an exceptional capacity to mobilize them. In the other hand, they are criticized, unaccountable and reluctant to respond to alter situations by the powerful institutions. Hailey and James (2004) note that these representatives of INGO can do many things by means of their "good vision and engagement," but the way they use control is "disability." He claims that such charismatic personalities are "dangerous to acceptance, deference, flattery and pleasure" (Hailey and James, 2004). As a result, they are deliberately choking promising projects which can put their power, partnerships or patronage at risk.

In the NGO climate in Africa, different strategic shifts and challenges continue to be faced, impacting condition and well-being of the NGO industry. Any of the main challenges faced by the sector are the closing and failure of key INGOs as a result of intensified funding competitiveness

and shifting donor preferences, the lack of a functioned national coordination system and high turnover of senior staff (Matanga, 2000).

Nasong'o (2017) states that East African non-governmental organisations face equal difficulties. Second, their small and precarious financial base, the absence of sufficient cooperation and networking between the NGOs, are over-dependent on donor support. In this respect, Nasong'o (2017) warns that this absence of co-operation contributes to a replication by "thin expansion activities with minimal impacts" of the efforts of NGOs in East Africa. There is also a persistent lack of awareness on the climate in which NGOs work in East Africa. Nasong'o (2017) argues that many of the poverty eradication projects can be due to this failure.

### **2.3.3 INGOs in Pursuit of Human Security in Kenya: Some Common Challenges?**

The most often illustrated in the literature is the frailty of the principle of INGO neutrality, which affects the work of the INGO activity in Kenya. The group is seen as strongly politically oriented and 'aimed at promoting 'growth' not democratization but systematically 'into' through the social and political institutions that define and perpetuate it' (Kanyinga, 1995). But tensions and at the same time

Conflict cases are also reported between the NGO sector and the State (Kanyiga, 1995; Matanga, 2000). In fact, the NGO-Coordination Board was established to supervise the registration, coordination, supervision and assessment of the country's NGOs and their role in the growth of national countries. In addition to the danger faced by the huge wealth of nongovernmental organizations and their direct critique of government practice the government decided that this was appropriate.

It is also normal for non-governmental organisations to be overwhelmingly dependent on donations and thus doubt their freedom from the power of donors, the viability and the importance and connection to their work. Finally, in their methods for achieving their goals, some NGOs and NGO sectors are considered culturalally insensitive or unacceptable (Droz, 2006; Amutabi, 2006).

The politized existence of Kenya's NGOs is further demonstrated by Aubrey (1997) and Okuku (2003). Droz (2006) claims that the increasing political leverage of NGOs, in the name of street children's rights in relation to Kenyan street children in the name of local affairs are being regarded with skepticism as more closely associated with local business issues than the children themselves.

Inappropriate and culturally sensitive methods to accomplish their desired goals are often often criticised by INGOs. The most detailed and systematic criticism of this kind is Eaton (2008)'s latest analysis of Kenya-Uganda peace building INGOs, like Oxfam, the USAID and the International Rescue Commission. Eaton claims that the area's INGO staff have purchased many recited but largely mythical accounts describing the causes of conflicts in the region as a result of the spread of weapons, insecurity and lack of capital. The 'cycle of abuse resulting from decisions taken after robbery, is argued to be more important. However as the NGOs have dismissed it, embracing only the awareness of conventional narrative, major breakthroughs are yet to be made.

In a lucid report, the Kenyan Public Service Organization's Poverty Eradication Network (PEN) (2016) reiterates these problems. Some of the challenges listed in the report are as follows. Firstly, a shortage of funds: NGOs are finding their job hard to find effective, sufficient and continuing support. They find it impossible for donors to access their financing criteria. They see some individual cartels and NGOs restricting access to donor support. They have limited expertise in resource mobilization and therefore do not hunt for the local funds to support foreign donors.

Donor reliance is high and initiatives aim to fit donor interests. There is a clear trend. Economic, project and corporate feasibility are missing.

The analysis also reveals Amutabi's feelings (2006). The sector as a whole the NGO Council and individual NGOs have been agreed to have weak governances. Good governance was widely recognized, with some regions showing very little comprehension of why NGOs must have boards or their position and functions. Many of the other stakeholders clarified that effective management of entrepreneurs who preferred to own their NGOs for their own sakes is difficult to accomplish.

Participants with a stronger understanding of good governance acknowledged that openness and transparency are important for NGOs. Many NGOs handle poorly, often by including and allowing their boards to eat the money of their NGOs. Members that are reluctant to pay to have allowances will be hard to locate members of the Board (PEN, 2016).

The PEN (2016) notes that the lack of strategic preparation causes another concern. Few NGOs have strategic plans that allow their mission, principles and activities to be taken over. This makes them vulnerable to the desires of donors and makes calculating their effect over time impossible. Bad connectivity has been described as a major problem. The root of this campaign is duplication, overlapping community policies, lack of experience and the failure of non-governmental organizations to solve local systemic factors of vulnerability, poverty and economic decline.

Negative resource rivalry also threatens the sector's credibility and the efficacy of Community-level NGO programs. This leads to strong mistrust, confidentiality and accountability among NGOs. Most NGOs, whether large and small, intervene without mapping the environment and carry out programs without due attention of existing community projects. NGO politics: one

battle, one without resources, but without the involvement of a party, one with community, but without resources (Eaton, 2008).

Bad communications in the industry is yet another problem. In fact, in his study, ten years earlier Matanga (2000) had referred to this issue. NGOs agree that coordination within the sector is incredibly bad. Most NGOs have little to no access to secure email and internet connectivity, almost no literature on development issues, and usually have little to no interaction with global, regional and national issues. Your inability to grasp the distinction between the Board and the Council is just one indication of the current knowledge differences.

What is considered minimal potential is what PEN (2016) talks about. NGOs are realizing the lack of technological and corporate capacities in all of them. Few nongovernmental organisations are able or willing to repay for that ability. In funding aggregation, administration, growth strategies and leadership and management, poor capacities were found. Some NGOs thought it would be possible to improve the potential needed by the presence of quality criteria. The pace of improvements in technology is also a challenge especially in IT capability areas.

Kameri-Mbote (2000) analyzes that in Kenya, the government is often critical of the high profile of advocacy activities by NGOs, especially in relation to government policies, and urges the INGOs to cooperate with the government. They believe like each other is partner/collaborators in realistic terms considering the numerous promises that the Kenyan government offers to INGOs. In the area of operation there is also a presumed ceiling. Tanzania notes that NGOs shall not be able to participate in any political action through the National Policy of the NGOs. In South Africa non-governmental organizations in particular assistance and legitimacy, frequently compete with the government. This dilemma was not spared for Kenyan NGOs (Kameri-Mbote, 2000).

According to PEN (2016), the NGO Board and NGO Council are both a threat to Kenya's INGOs. The Study found that many participants were not sufficiently informed and ignorant of their positions and duties in relation to these organizations, the NGO Coordinating Board and the National Council of NGOs. Most participants said the Code of Ethics of the NGO was out of date and needed to be revised rapidly. This party also complained that the Council of NGOs was poorly controlled and did not provide the NGOs with resources. The Commission was aware that the Board of NGOs does not value the Council and the government and NGOs have distrust. Participants are well aware of the public image of the NGOs sector, which they see as primarily due to the Council and NGO leadership, policy and infighting. While most participants praised the constructive role played by the NGO Board in building a sustainable atmosphere for NGOs, a few participants thought that some sections of the government had not had strong political will for NGOs. Any governmental branches are meant to frustrate NGOs intentionally. A few participants in Kameri-(2000) Mbote's study thought the NGO sector and its representatives were pushing back governmental office.

#### **2.3.4 Opportunities for INGOs in the Pursuit of Human Security**

Given the above obstacles, INGOs could try alternative ways of achieving their goals. For eg, the Maximum Opportunities (2017) indicate that first, while INGOs already have several fundraising partners, that is not an excuse in the hunt for new opportunities for their ventures. INGOs should still research on the new subventions, financing options for non-governmental organizations and even tiny subventions for non-governmental organizations. It will definitely not be enough when you look at additional funders in the long term. The aim should still be, to

gain capital rather than merely take in grant finance organizations. Furthermore, there can also be several brilliant thoughts because there's no strategic planning, but that can create chaos and detract the INGO from the original target. While many positive ideas arrive, they often do not adhere to the priorities outlined. As noted, while some organisations may still have expertise and staff are familiar with their activities, coaching and preparation may also be useful from time to time. Employees and volunteers in these cases will still be able to gather and submit everything to help improve the organisation (MaximImpact, 2017).

In addition, INGOs are working together to accomplish their goals more effectively with respect to the problem of the lack of networking. But it is also seen by some NGOs as a means of rivalry. For whatever excuse, NGOs feel they would have more competition to qualify for subsidies if they close themselves to other NGOs or non-profit organisations. The solution to this issue is that other NGOs should be treated as unhealthy competition. In reality, if other NGOs are given grant approval, it should be regarded as a chance to collaboration and learn from them. It may even assist to allow networks inside the room to make use of the technologies. With regard to the problem of inadequate maintenance, the scarcity of infrastructure is very widespread in many developed countries, and NGOs claim that people are capable of better living conditions. Many NGOs have then agreed to resolve the problem by creating neighborhoods that help many people. The findings are apparent at first and people live a happier life. It should be recalled, though, that not all cultures are able to sustain the same lifestyle. The benefits to their quality of life may only be transient without adequate maintenance. In comparison, the willingness of your NGOs to collect funds can impact a variety of initiatives that do not have sustainable outcomes. Grant-financing companies tend to include others that can show their potential for long-term deployment and management.

†This opportunity means that INGOs can move on to the next initiative to provide assistance for other populations who are still urgently in need of support in view of the number of communities in developed nations and the small sources of funds for non-profit organisations. Therefore it is best to ensure that there are adequate resources and workforce to both support a current and launch a new initiative. Instead of achieving anything but fleeting success, we will achieve only few projects with lasting effect. As a result, a slower but stable machine is still more powerful compared to handing in more than your resources (MaximImpact, 2017).

## **2.4 Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework for this study was constructed based on a synthesis of theories and models that include: Neo-liberalism; the Basic Needs Approach (BNA) and the Human Development Approach (HDA).

### **2.4.1 Neo-Liberalism**

In several political and scholarly conversations, the term neoliberalism has become very popular in the last twenty to thirty years. Several scholars have claimed that neoliberalism is the dominant ideology that shapes today's world and that we live in the neoliberal age. This was mainly the case with writers who use the term negatively and sometimes one can suspect that they use the word with all violence. The term explains how we consider capitalism and consumerism to be a sad spread and the similarly deplorable absence of the proactive welfare government. (Bourdieu 1998;

1998a; 2001; Chomsky, 1999; Touraine 2001; Harvey, 2005; Hermansen, 2005; Saad-Filho and Johnston, 2005; Hagen 2006; Plehwe *et al.* 2006).

The neoliberal ideology is analogous to the laissez-faire ideals and derives from the contemporary 19th-century classical liberalism. The name was spread internationally from Chiapas, Mexico during the Zapatista conflicts with neoliberalism. In the last two decades this hypothesis has developed steadily as a research field. In addition to focusing on neoliberal markets, the rise of NGOs in global South economies as a "Third Sector" was the replacement, as a direct growth operator, for the sluggish advance of the state (Paul and Israel, 1991).

The competition between government and market is a core aspect of the neoliberal agenda, according to Bresser-Pereira (2009). This opposition places two institutions on the same level, complementary in contemporary society, by their very existence and arrangement. The State is thus the central institution of a society, the matrix of all other institutions, the principle of coordination or supervision and of authority over society as a whole and the democratic machinery by which it is continuously implemented and updated. Although corporate activities are coordinated by statute (i.e. by the legal system), this coordination is ensured by public administrations. The sector, as Bresser-Pereira (2009) claims, is on the other hand, a more constrained but similarly important institution: the state controlled economic competition system co-ordinates economic behavior somewhat automatically; it complements broader state coordination.

Where is the third industry? The third sector is situated somewhere between the state and the industry, according to Anheier and Seibel (2013). Usually, the word 'third sector' refers to the number of agencies and organisations situated between the state, the first sector and the business,

the second sector. The word encompasses corporate, benevolent, non-profit, community organisations, trusts and a wide variety of private, nonprofit and voluntary organizations. The arrangement excludes co-operatives and cooperative unions but in particular in a historical and cross-national sense, considerable oversight is present among these categories of organisations and the third sector class. The self-help groups were the founders of the poor in the Victorian period and today are qualified cooperatives among SMEs in developing countries (Anheier and Seibel, 2013).

For over two decades, politicians, scholars and others talked about a 'third way' which refers to social organization means and values other than the State and the Business market (Harvey, 2005). Most of this dialogue on the 3rd strategy for growth concentrates on the tasks that can be occupied by NGOs, along with other public societal components. Neo-liberal theorists' proposals to decrease the state in order to make it more productive have also meant the non-governmental organizations are outsourcing state obligations. In this analysis, neoliberalism is used to understand the rise, proliferation and extension of INGOs and their complementary role in the creation of the State.

However the Neoliberalism ideology has not been short of critique. Wallace (2004) was highly critical of the theory, pointing out that it is a tool for global imperialism. Wallace complains that NGOs have turned into “Trojan horses” for a regime of repression by neoliberal policies that over the past decade, have moved from the purely economic realm into every area of social and political life. It is now widely agreed for aid donors, on whom development NGOs are largely based, to make demands about social policy, budget allocations, democratic mechanisms and processes of transparency.

Along the same vein, Bebbington and others (2013) explored the weaknesses of this approach. The authors opine that “The weaknesses of Neoliberalism derive mainly from its stubborn unwillingness to correct its own errors.” To this regard, they opined that the chief areas of limitation of the theory include:

(1) “Its reliance on the market forces leaves it susceptible to external forces, such as the costs it imposes on the climate, ecosystems, and finance;

(2) Its emphasis on labour and capital mobility, cultural pluralism, and economic inequality clashes with the loyalty most people feel towards different forms of “social capital”. Concerning this weakness, the authors lament that neoliberalism has been course for much social inequality;

(3) Its resistance to hands-on government intervention leaves it failing to engage with the potential that government partnerships offer, such as new technological developments and unrivaled financial stimulation and help;

(4) Last but not least, the theory’s relatively weak ideological hold leaves it vulnerable to any failure to deliver to people higher material living standards and ‘economic successes. It is therefore particularly resistant to any challenge to the prioritization of economic growth.”

However, despite the abovementioned weaknesses, neoliberalism, as implied earlier, may be said as the pioneering worldview that laid down the foundations for the third sector and the civil society. This means that the utility of neoliberalism as one of the foundational theories that inform this research cannot be overstated.

## 2.4.2 Basic Needs Approach (BNA)

The very fundamental premises of the human security agenda could be traced from the Basic Needs Approach. The goal of an approach to basic needs is to provide resources for the individual's maximum growth. It reflects on the mobilization and deficiency of relevant services for such classes. The approaches to income and employment, which ignore crucial aspects of fulfilling critical needs, are contrasted. The purpose of the essential needs strategy is that earlier rather than later the distance between criteria and the real living conditions will be filled (Streeten, 1979). In contrast to abstract definitions, there is focus on ends, but the solution to specific criteria requires "nonmaterial" needs. In contrast, the attention is on means. These include self-determination, liberty, freedom in politics and security, decision-making, national and cultural identity and a sense of meaning in life and work (Streeten, 1979).

Galtung (1980) in definition of the basic needs approach emphasizes that "...pitted against this stands the single and clear idea that development is development of human beings, because, human beings are the measure of all things. Development, then would be seen as a process progressively satisfying basic human needs." (Galtung, 1980). The supporters of the BNA support the implementation of a wide variety of economic and social policies that directly resolve poverty and injustice challenges in development countries. What constitutes essential needs is different from person to individual, from community to society.

Rutjes (1979) categorized basic needs into 5 clusters:

- i. "the need for personal consumer goods such as food, clothing and housing;

- ii. the need for universal access to services such as primary education, adult education, healthcare, communication etc.;
- iii. The need for a physical, human and technological infrastructure with the capacity to produce the capital and intermediate goods necessary to provide consumer goods and services;
- iv. The need for productive employment yielding sufficient output and equitable enough remuneration so that individuals and families can earn a decent living and have an effective access to consumer goods;
- v. And the need for mass participation in decision-making, in formulating strategies, and in exerting influence on the implementation of projects and leadership.”

In the 1970s, the BNA gained traction realizing that economic development cannot reduce poverty on its own. Importance and prevalence of mass poverty and injustice in the developed world have contributed to the development of the Basic Needs Strategy (BNA). The advocates of basic needs claim that economic growth alone cannot eliminate poverty and hence the need for equity growth, while concentrating on local democracy, engagement and autonomy (Hardiman and Midgley, 1982; Hyden, 1994).

The strategy by BNA is important and the origins of the approach to human protection can be traced to the rise of the BNA philosophy. Stewart (1985) notes that a basic development strategy is one that prioritizes the fulfillment of all basic requirements. There are a number of different meanings of the actual substance of BNA: they often provide conformity with certain dietary requirements (food and water) and compulsory availability of health and education services. Other

material needs, for example clothes, as well as non-material criteria, for instance work, engagement and political rights, are included. In this regard, we can recognize how the human security strategy of making the fulfillment of certain essential human needs a priority for growth is not a new or a sophisticated notion, but is based on the simple view that the reduction of total misery should be a top priority for development. As a result, the BNA and the Human Security Agenda are interlinked.

Nonetheless, there exists a few criticisms to this approach. “While it provides considerable flexibility to the policymakers, the BNA is criticized for unpredictability” (Krige, 2008). Although Krige focussed on education as a facet of the BNA, he observed that academics and bureaucrats at the top dictate what and how much people "need with the supposition that everyone has the same, dubious needs. It is also fundamentally blamed for being paternalistic, oblivious to the desires of people. Ideally, as Owlcation (2018) indicated, in terms of what individuals needs, the consumption kit must also be analyzed at the individual level (need). A market strategy that does not equate suffering with the ideals and desires of people and the end result (well-being).

### **2.4.3 Human Development Approach (HDA)**

In political circles and general discourse, the notion of human development has circulated. An annual Human Development Report created by the UN Development Program was one vehicle for contact. In 1990, the first study was released and more concerns tried to answer a number of problems in the field of human development (UNDP 1994). Almost 100 independent agencies today create their own national and regional human development reports and some country have

state or local reports in addition to the annual 'world' report (Papalia et al., 2007) (Papalia et al., 2007).

The aim of these reports is to analyze the population status from a life quality point of view. The analyzes of these results are based on evidence on the welfare of citizens, jobs, democratic liberties, protection and the environment. These studies seek to increase awareness and stimulate public discussion on public topics and issues that otherwise would not be on the political agenda by analyzing the satellite of a community from a humane development perspective (Papalia et al., 2007).

Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani economist who wished to see the global economic and social change measured differently from the conventional factors of wealth and economic growth that were currently in the annual World Development Reports, had made his brainchild in the Human Development Reports. A world that sells weapons ought not, she said, to be treated as 'developed' more natural than a nation that did not create weapon manufacturing and exportation because weapons production results in a greater domestic Gross Product in the country which generally was less likely, because (Haq, 1995).

The basic goal of development is in line with Haq's (1995), "to expand the options of the people." This options should in theory, be endless and shift over time. It is also the case, in income or development statistics, that people admire successes that are not or are not readily apparent: greater access to knowledge, improved nutrition and health care, healthy livelihoods, protection from crime and physical violence, fulfilling leisure periods, political and cultural liberties and a sense of collective engagement. Creation seeks to create an atmosphere that allows people to live a long, safe and creative life.

Global prosperity or foreign trade, budget deficits or monetary policies, saving or investing in technology, basic social care or protective nets for the vulnerable are all protected by the human development model. There is nothing outside of the reach of this development paradigm, but the emphasis is on broadening people's options and enriching their lives. From this view, all facets of life – economic, political or cultural. As such, global prosperity was just a part of the paradigm of human progress.

Rice (1998), an advocate for the approach, claims that the idea of human growth applies not just to an overall approach in fields such as sales, schooling, technology, climate, jobs or to an evolving approach to human choices and capability. In the 1990's, the school of human development arose on the basis of a range of prior reactions to the prevailing economic development model that had as its goal the maximization of economic growth. Development was claimed as an aim to be inadequate when overall growth can be realized with less desired states like the suffering of poor, the suppression of politics or the destruction of the environment (Rice, 1998).

Seers (1970), as an indicator of growth in 1970, declared the overthrow of GNP per capita. Chenery et al. (1975) stressed that development or equities ought to be redistributed and that the productivity of the weak is improved. The essential need strategy consequently emerged to ensure that the vulnerable have a minimal decent life, including health, housing, literacy, jobs, etc The members of this minimally decent life. The aims of human development that have developed from a basic approach to human needs is general and should be extended to all nations, regardless of whether they contribute to prosperity or suffering, violence or security, peace or conflict (Seers, 1970). Human development explicitly claims that the ultimate goal of the socioeconomic policies should be citizens and their well-being, not economic prosperity, or any other state of affairs.

In addition to the clear health and education as well as income of the Human Development Index, a well known by-product of this strategy, human development does not focus only on those fields, it focuses on the option and independence per se. The human development approach "Human evolution is an extension of the decisions of individuals. Widening the preference of individuals is accomplished through the extension and functioning of human capital" (Chenery et al., 1975).

The approach to human development is especially useful for the analysis as it advises the variable based, human development, directly. Firstly since economic growth, as such, was just a branch of the human development model and contrasts with prior approaches to development, it was an early and analytically proved way of determining development by assessing all facets of life - economic, environmental, cultural or political - by itself. In other words, the multi-dimensional approach to sustainability and human welfare by the human sector (Haq 1995) acknowledges that the origins are substantially different for different societies and nations in the global challenges.

Despite the above strengths, though, there are some drawbacks with the HDA strategy. Sanderson, Scherbov and Ghislandi (2018) agree that this approach has made an enormous contribution to improving people's thinking in terms of development. But they caution about the difficulties of assessing human development first. Accorder arrangements between its components were indirectly taken up by the HDA. HDI tests health with birth life preferences and economic circumstances with GDP per capita, for example. So with various variations of the two, the same HDI value can be obtained.

Scherbov and Ghislandi (2018) conclude that as a consequence, in economic success the HDI imposes a benefit of an additional year of life. This is different by the amount of per capita GDP

of a region. In this context, see the HDI to discover whether there is a significant addition to living in America or Canada, safer in Germany or France or more in Norway or in India or Europe

The HDI also functions with the consistency and the importance of the simple results. In a country, the average income might be high, but what about a small elite? The differentiating coding does not vary across countries with the same GDP except by different increases in income differences or nations having a view towards standard of education. The HDI can mask large variations in human growth by relying on averages. The integration into the index of imprecise or missing data limits its effectiveness (Scherbov and Ghislandi, 2018).

Finally, there could be high similarities between data on various domains. The per capita GDP and average education levels are closely associated in countries for example. There could be no extra information relative to simply using one, including two strongly correlated metrics.

## 2.4.4 Conceptual Model of INGOs and Enhancement Human Security

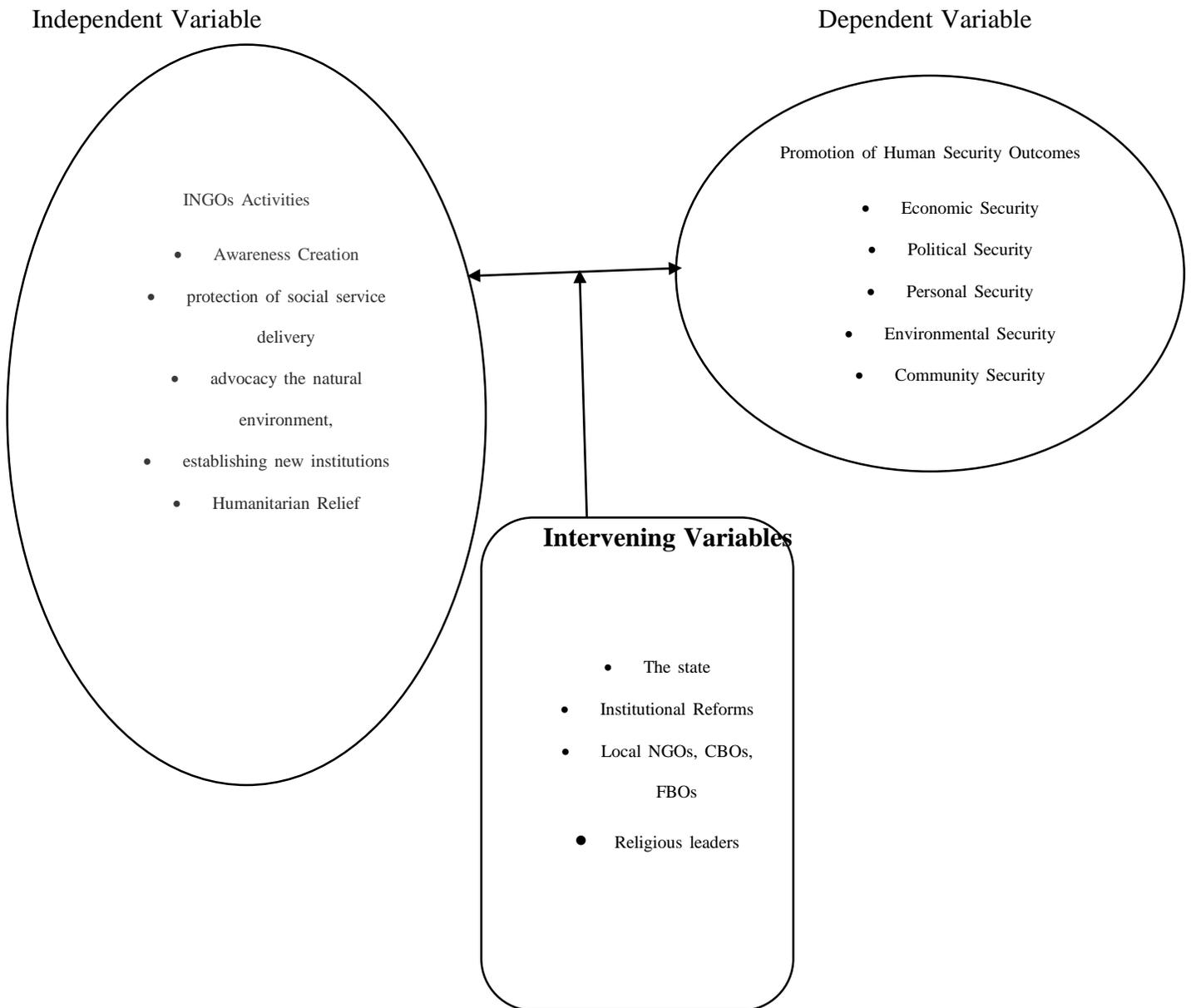


Figure 2. 1 Conceptual Model Showing the Interaction of Variables

Source: Author, 2018

The conceptual model (figure 2.1) represents the interaction between the independent, intervening and dependent variables. The independent variable is the INGO body in Kenya, which provides protection and ensures access to public goods, backing the preservation of nature, forming innovative institutions, humanitarian relief, among other services. The dependent variable, on the other hand, are the human security outcomes which traverse the political, economic, social, health, and environmental spheres. The intervening variables, the state, institutional reforms, local NGOs, FBOs and CBOs, provide mediation or a causal link that enables the end product, human security, to be achieved.

## **2.5 Summary of Literature Review and Research Gaps**

This review of literature was a chronological effort to locate the various concepts in their contextual and historical settings as they relate to this study. Thematically, the researcher sought to establish the extent and nature of INGOs involved in the socio-economic space of Kenya, and to relate their presence with Kenya's current human security status. From the reviewed literature, it was established that in as much as a number of development thinkers and practitioners appreciate the role of INGOs in development, not many tend to link them to human security as a specialized aspect of development. In addition, there seemed to be little and scanty information on the Human security situation in Kakamega county. Most previous studies tended to concentrate on Northern Kenya. This chapter went on to provide a conceptual framework on which the study will be underpinned, hence leading to research methodology, the subject of the

next chapter. The following chapter presents the methods and procedures to be followed in collecting and analyzing data in order to effectively meet the objectives of the study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter dealt with the methods and procedures to be followed in collecting and analyzing data in order to effectively meet the objectives of the study. This research methodology chapter elaborated the research design, population of the study, the sampling procedure, instrumentation, administration and the methods of analysis. The researcher relied on both primary and secondary sources of data. The techniques used to collect data included: Focus Group Discussions, interviews, observation, and questionnaires. The researcher envisaged both an explanatory and exploratory design. Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used, with the researcher highlighting respondents who were key informants, those of whom were envisioned to provide primary data, alongside other sources. Secondary data was attained via a thorough review of existing academic literature, which includes books, journals, and periodicals.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

A research design is “the logical structure” of the process of investigation that the social scientist is engaged upon. Creswell (2017) opines it is the “plan, the structure and the strategy of investigation” that is conceived, so as to obtain and attain the research objectives. According to

Creswell and Creswell (2017), “it is the set of methods and procedures used in collecting and analyzing measures of the variables specified in the research problem research.”

This research employed both an explanatory and exploratory research designs, utilizing mainly qualitative approaches. The choice of this design was motivated by the fact that this study will serve to explore and provide more details in an area of study that, till today, has not been studied in-depth. The exploratory research design offers increased understanding on the topic under research, and it is also flexible (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). It is particularly important to know the strengths and weaknesses of the research design that has been chosen because each design is suitable for a particular context, and the design determines the type of data information that will be acquired (Okoth, 2012).As recommended by Maxwell (2012), using multi-methods helps to minimize bias and it also provides a more complete view. The researcher, via this study, intends to explain the current problem, in more details than previously analyzed, and also set the pace for further discussions and studies for the future.

### **3.2 Study Area**

Kakamega County is situated in what was once known as Western Province of Kenya. The public evaluation directed by the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2009) has its populace at 1,660,651 individuals. As per the Kakamega County Website (2017), it's anything but a space of 3,000 and 33 square kilometers, and spots its capital in it principle metropolitan focus, Kakamega Town. "It borders Vihiga County toward the South, Siaya County toward the West, Bungoma and Trans Nzoia Counties toward the North and Nandi County toward the East. The elevation of the region

is somewhere in the range of 1240metres and 2000 meters above ocean level. The Nandi Escarpment frames a conspicuous component on the area's eastern boundary with its primary scarp ascending from the overall height of 1,600 to 2,000metres.The southern piece of the region is bumpy and is comprised of tough stones ascending to 1,950 meters above ocean level." There are additionally a few slopes, among them Misango, Butieri, Imanga, Eregi, among others (County Government of Kakamega, 2017).

The region comprises of two essential organic regions: the upper medium (UM) and the lower medium (LM). The UM includes regions like Ikolomani, Lurambi, Malava, Navakholo and Shinyalu in both the Central and Northern nations of County where steep maize, tea, cotton and vegetable season develop mainly on a limited scale, and in Lugari and Likuyani where development is completed on a significant scale. An enormous piece of the southern piece of the District, including Butere, Khwisero, Mumias East, Mumias West and Matungu, is ensured in the second ecological locale, the LM. Sugarcane creation is the essential financial action around here. A few ranchers use corn, yams, tea, ground nuts, and compost (County Government of Kakamega, 2017).

The yearly precipitation in the province is somewhere in the range of 1280.1 and 2214.1 mm a year. The precipitation design is spread consistently throughout the year with high precipitation in March and July and moderate precipitation in December and February. It is 18 0C to 29 0C in temperature. January, February and March are the most smoking a long time with moderately equivalent temperatures for the entire months aside from July and August that are freezing. A city

has hypothesis drink levels of 67%. Since the mid 1960s, the temperatures in Kenya have been on the increment both least (night) and greatest (day) (County Government of Kakamega, 2017).ku

Table 3. 1 Showing administrative and Political Units

Constituencies	Sub-counties	Area Km <sup>2</sup>	No. of divisions	No. of Locations	No of Sub locations
Butere	Butere	210.5	3	8	25
Khwisero	Khwisero	145.6	2	7	20
Lurambi	Kakamega central	244.5	2	6	12
Navakholo	Navakholo	175.1	1	3	10
Shinyalu	Kakamega East	445.5	2	6	23
Kakamega North	Kakamega North	427.4	5	14	52
	Matete	100.2	1	2	7
Ikolomani	Kakamega South	143.6	2	6	22
Likuyani	Likuyani	301.8	1	4	8
Lugari	Lugari	265.8	1	4	8
Matungu	Matungu	275.8	1	2	13
Mumias west	Mumias	314.5	3	15	30

Mumias East

<b>Total</b>	12	3050.4	24	72	233
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Source: [www.kakamega.go.ke/political-units](http://www.kakamega.go.ke/political-units) (2018)

Kakamega County has 12 constituencies, 12 sub-counties, 24 divisions, 72 locations and 233 sub locations as indicated in the figure 3.1

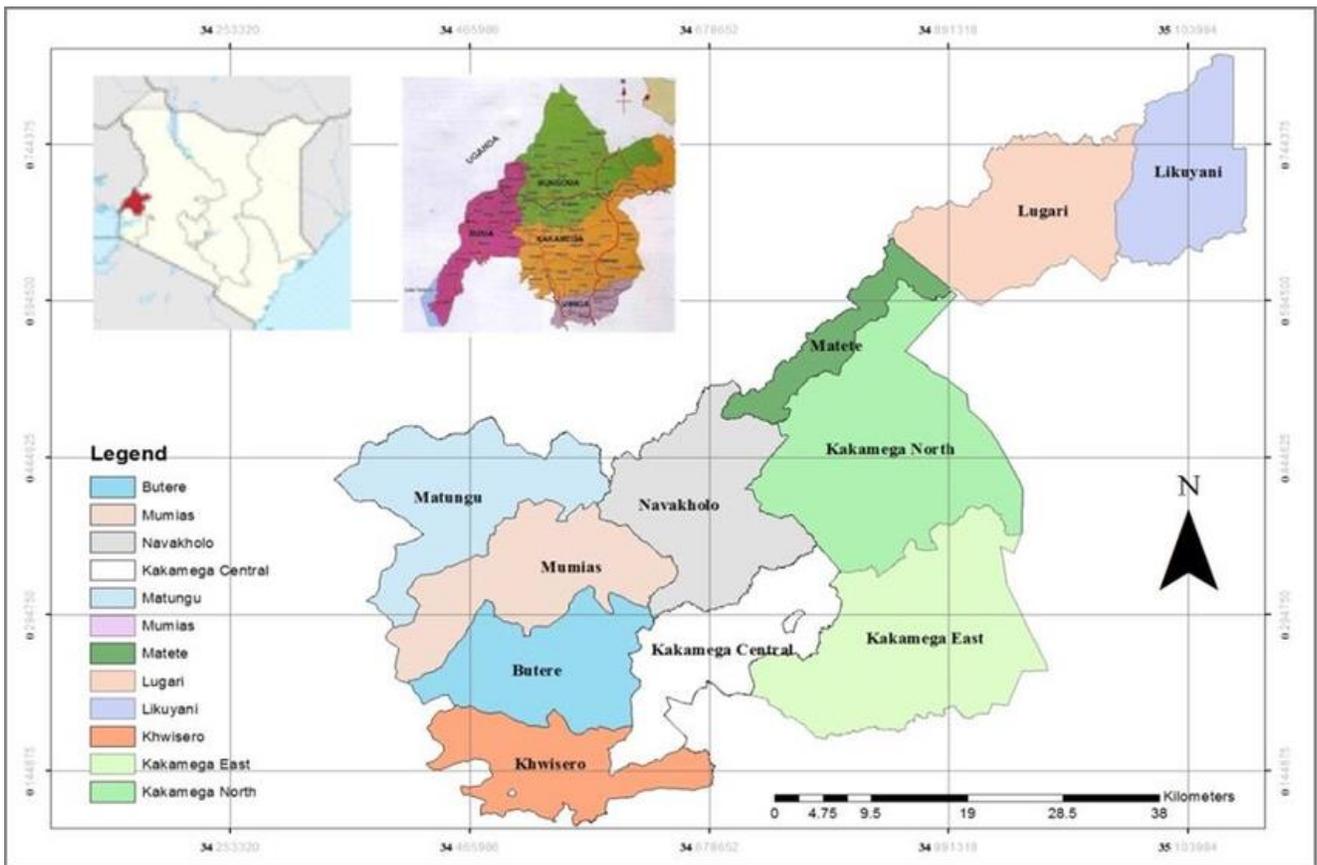


Figure 3. 1 Map of Kakamega county sub counties

Source: <http://www.researchgate.net/figure/A-Map-Showing-Kakamega-County-and-its>

Location-on-the-Kenyan-Map\_fig1\_304714950

Kakamega County has 12 constituencies, 12 sub-counties, 24 divisions, 72 locations and 233 sub locations as indicated in the table 3.1.

### **3.3 Study Population**

A population is a “complete set of elements (persons or objects) that possess some common characteristic defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher” (O’leary, 2004). The “study population is the entire group of people or objects to which the researcher wishes to generalize the study findings.” Kakamega County consists of a total of 1,660,651 people (KNBS, 2009).

The study population included of the following groups of respondents: officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, from the national level (officials from the NGO Coordination Board), to County development officers, and Members of County Assembly (MCAs); and household heads of beneficiary communities.

### **3.4 Sampling Procedure**

According to Maxwell (2012), the sampling is a way of selecting a sample from a sub-group, representing the large group from which they were picked. Analysis screening is carried out such that precise outcomes can be obtained. The analysis of the entire population is inefficient and unwanted and that is why sampling is carried out. If the sample is too small or too big, the results could be inaccurate. Techniques for the processing of representative samples to eliminate distortion can be used for sampling (O'leary, 2004).

The researcher employed both probability and non-probability procedures to obtain a representative sample. Specifically, the researcher made use of purposive and random sampling procedures in order to arrive at a sample size that is able achieve the research objective.

### **3.5 Sampling Strategy and Sample Size Determination**

The researcher made use of both probability and non-probability techniques in selecting a representative sample for the study. Probability sampling is a sampling methodology that offers fair chances for individuals to be chosen as a representative sample (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

Probability sampling was employed in order to provide an equal opportunity for each element of the population to be selected (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Household heads of beneficiaries will be selected using simple random sampling. In order to get officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, from the national level (officials from the NGO Coordination Board), non-probability sampling will be employed. Purposive sampling

was employed, selectively and subjectively selecting a group of people that will be deemed relevant to the study (Creswell and Creswell, 2017).

The study population comprised officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, from the national level (officials from the NGO Coordination Board), to County development officers, and chiefs; and household heads of beneficiary communities.

### **3.5.1 Sampling procedure for Government Officials**

County Development officers were purposively selected, one each from the relevant ministries, i.e. the Ministry of Environment, Water, and Natural Resources, the Ministry of Health Services, and the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Cooperatives and Fisheries. This will bring the total number to three.

The sub counties of the sub counties of Malava, Lugari, Matungu, Ikolomani Lurambi and Shinyalu consist of 6, 6, 5, 4, 5, and 5 wards respectively, bringing a total of 26 wards. Using Mugenda and Mugenda's (2003) 30% sample size determination, 8 MCAs will be selected using simple random sampling.

One officer from the Kisumu regional coordination board was selected. This is because the Kisumu regional office of the NGO coordination board is the one that registers, facilitates and regulates the activities of NGOs in western Kenya.

### 3.5.2 Sampling procedure for Household Heads

Kakamega County has eight sub counties namely: Lugari, Likuyani, Malava, Lurambi, Navakholo, Mumias West, Mumias East, Matungu, Butere, Kwisero, Shinyalu and Ikolomani. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) assert that 50% of the total population is a big enough sample size, a number that was able to allow the researcher to make inferences about the whole population. Based on 50% sampling units as supported by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), six out of the twelve sub counties were be selected. The sub counties were selected using simple random sampling. Writing the names of all the constituencies on pieces of paper, and randomly picking them up from a basket ensured that each constituency is selected entirely by chance, and each constituency has an equal chance of being chosen. Thus the sub counties of Malava, Lugari, Matungu, Ikolomani Lurambi and Shinyalu were used in the study. The number of household heads in the sub counties are 52636, 47,475, 30,871, 23,144, 65,121, and 34,177 respectively. This brings the total number to 253,424 household heads (KNBS, 2009). Therefore, to get a representative and desired sample size, the desired sample population was determined using Fisher's formula for sample size determination for a target population that is above 10,000 (Fisher *et al.*, 1983 cited in Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999:43) as stated

$$n = \frac{z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

Where n=desired sample size (the target population is greater than 10,000).

$z$ =the standard normal deviate at the confidence level of 95% is 1.96.

$p$ =the proportion of the target population estimated to have characteristics being measured is set at 50%

$q=1-p$  (probability of non-success)

$d$ =level of statistical significance set at 0.05

$$n = \left( \frac{(1.96)^2 * 0.5 * (1 - 0.5)}{(0.05)^2} \right)$$

$$n = 384$$

Therefore, a total sample size considered will be 384.

Table 3. 2: Sampling of Household Heads

S/N	Sub Counties	Total Households (N)	Sampled Household units (s)	
1	Malava	52,636	80	
2	Lugari	47,475	72	
3	Matungu	30,871	47	
4	Ikolomani	23,144	35	
5	Lurambi	65,121	99	
6	Shinyalu	34,177	51	
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>253,424</b>	<b>384</b>	

Source: Author, 2018; KNBS, 2009

### **3.5.3 Sampling procedure for INGOs and INGO officials**

## **3.6 Methods of Data Collection**

In collecting data for this study, the researcher employed field research techniques, accompanied by content analysis of secondary sources. The primary data collection techniques included Focus Group Discussions, Key Informant Interviews, Non-participant observation, and both structured and unstructured questionnaires. Field visits to relevant respondents and audio-visual instruments both helped in collection of the primary data.

Relevant secondary sources of data were also be sought to complement the primary sources of data. The secondary data were sourced from relevant institutions which include the Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology's Library, Maseno University's Library, National Libraries, the Internet, Television and Radio stations, research journals, books, newspaper articles and magazines.

### **3.6.1 Questionnaires**

The questionnaires that were issued mainly consisted of both close ended and open ended questions. The open ended questions delivered an opportunity for the participants to offer and include "more information, including feelings, attitudes and understanding of the subject" under research. The close ended questions, on the other hand, were also handy because they were easier and quicker or respondents, and the answers, as Newman (2013) observed, are

easier to code and analyze statistically. A sample of the questionnaire that guided the investigation can be accessed in appendix II.

### **3.6.2 Interviews**

Interviews consisted of face to face verbal communication between the researcher and key informants. These took the form of semi-structured interviews where the interviewer made use of an interview guide. The interviews were recorded by note taking. This arrangement included a written list of questions or topics that inform the study. Interviews were used to gather data from key informants, whom in this investigation were members of the NGO Corrodination Board, as well as members of the county assembly.

### **3.6.3 Focus Group Discussions**

Focus Group discussions were strategically conducted among the local administration to help in the collection of information regarding their opinions, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions regarding the topic under study. The FGDs complemented the interviews, seeing as Newman (2013) opined, they can save time and money, as compared to individual interviews. The FGD guide is provided in Appendix II. The FGDs mainly targeted the local administration officers, amongst them village elders and chiefs.

Owing to the kind of variables that are to be researched, the researcher expected an explanatory and exploratory research design, and thus heavily relied on qualitative data to best answer the

problem under investigation, as put forward by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). Key Informant interviews mainly targeted officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, to provide adequate information, while making sure time was maximized.

### **3.7 Data Analysis**

According to Creswell and Creswell (2017), “quantitative data is information about quantities, that is, information that can be measured and written down with numbers. Qualitative data, on the other hand, is information about qualities, that is, information that can’t actually be measured by numbers.” More often than not, qualitative data is descriptive (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS software to obtain descriptive statistics particularly frequencies and percentages and presented in presented in tables, graphs, and charts. Qualitative data was analyzed using thematic techniques to support quantitative data and presented in form of narrative reports.

### **3.8 Limitations of the study**

The researcher foresaw the following limitations during the forthcoming study: language barrier and security during data collection. Nonetheless, the researcher remains confident that the goals of the study were met successfully. As such, the researcher envisioned to overcome these challenges by engagement of two research assistants and one interpreters who are well versed with the local language; and also mobilization of local community leaders and government administrators. Kakamega County is houses the Luhya community who hail from the Bantu ethnic group. It has over ten sub-ethnic groupings, each speaking a different dialect of the Luhya

language (Elimu, 2015). Therefore, an interpreter, who understands the vast of these languages was vital in helping the researcher access and understand all the interactions with the informants. Furthermore, the researcher supplemented and complemented the primary data with adequate secondary data.

### **3.9 Ethical Considerations**

Ethics are rules or standards of ethics that separate the right from the wrong. It helps to differentiate between actions acceptable and unacceptable (Connelly, 2014). In social science, Rogers (1987) says that ethical issues are essential, because the primary aim of the study is to avoid and falsify data and to encourage the promotion of facts and reality. Having a trustworthy, responsible and equitable atmosphere between researchers is often important for ethical conduct for collaborative activities. Ethical principles encourage research goals such as information, truth and error prevention (Rogers, 1987).

The researcher maintained confidentiality at all times and identity of the participants was not made known to other people. Consent was obtained from all the respondent used in the study. The researcher fully explained to the respondents what the research was all about beforehand. Legal permissions to conduct research were sought from the Directorate of Postgraduate Studies of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, and the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), in order to facilitate a smooth research process.

### **3.10 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the researcher expounded on how the objectives of the study were to be met. This was by addressing the kind of data, sources and methods of analysis that were used in the study. Based on an exploratory and explanatory research design, the informants of the study were systematically selected, obtaining sample of 384 informants., representing the target population which will include officials of INGOs from national to grassroots levels; state officers in relevant departments, from the national level (officials from the NGO Coordination Board), County development officers, and chiefs; and household heads of beneficiary communities. Further, the methods of data collection included Focus Group Discussions, Key Informant Interviews, Non-participant observation, and both structured and unstructured questionnaires. The following chapter presents the results and discussions of the investigation, following the collection and analysis of the data.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **NATURE AND EXTENT OF INGOS INVOLVEMENT IN THE HUMAN SECURITY SPACE OF KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents results and discussions on the first objective of the study: the nature and nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya. The chapter explores the following issues of concern: categorization of NGOs in the county; how long the organizations have been in Kenya and Kakamega County; the primary issues that the organizations deal with; and the perceived benefits that the organizations have brought to the people of Kakamega County. The analysis in this chapter was meant to provide policy makers and academicians with insights on the nature and extent of the involvement of INGOs with issues to do with human security. The analysis was summarized and presented using descriptive statistical tools through the use of Tables and Figures.

#### **4.1 How long have INGOs been present in Kakamega County?**

The researcher employed questionnaires to key informants, complimented by interviews, to determine how long INGOs have been present in Kakamega County. In addition, the researcher relied on some secondary sources to determine how long INGOs have existed in Kakamega County. While the Kenyan NGO coordination act was established in 1991, the first INGO to be based and operate in Kakamega County was until 2001, with the African Canadian Continuing

Education establishing its office in Kefingo Estate, Kakamega. In addition, only three respondents confirmed to have existed for 10 – 15 years. The rest, Horn of Africa Development Initiative (HODI), the Nile Basin Initiative, One Acre Fund, World Vision, USAID, MERCY CORPS, and CARE international. From this evidence, majority of the INGOs in Kakamega county have been present for between 5-10 years, making up 57% of the results. Figure 4.1 illustrates these results:

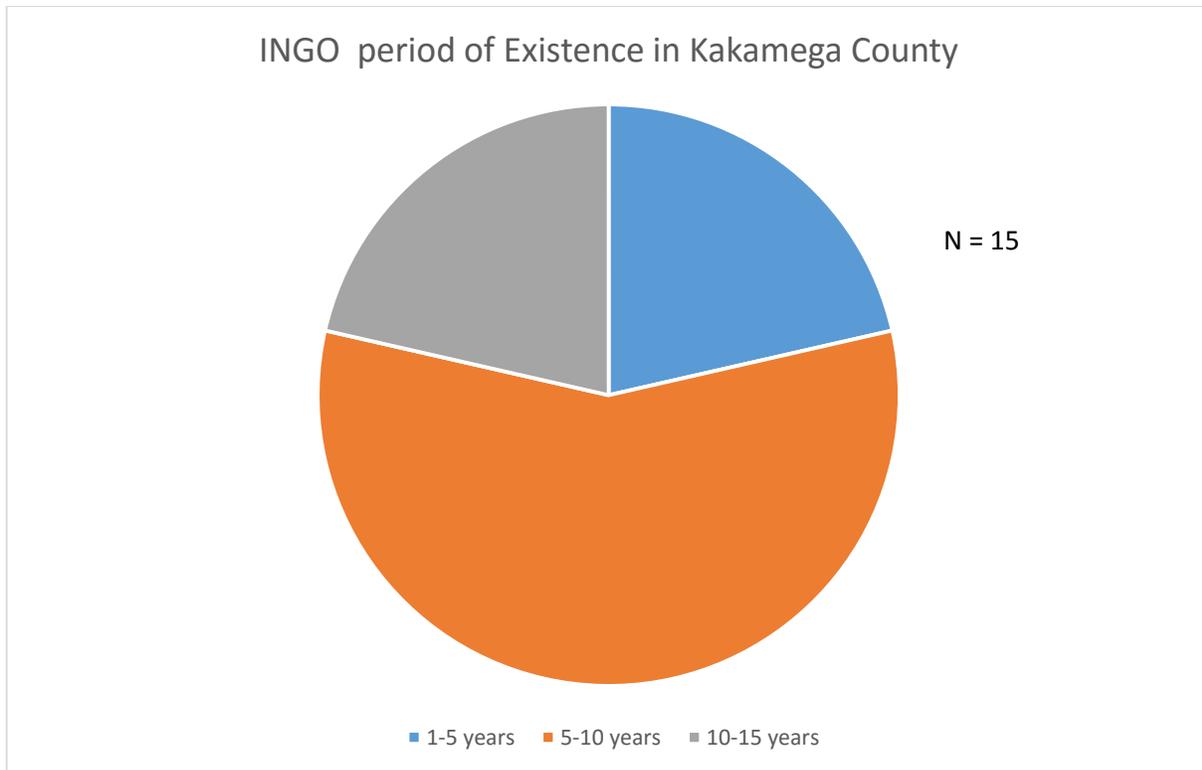


Figure 4. 1: INGOs period of Existence in Kakamega County

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

The findings of this study are backed by Hearn (2007) who points out that the last twenty years have pioneered the growth of an NGO presence in Kenya. Hearn (2007) pointed out that “with

just 267 registered NGOs in Kenya in 1988, NGO sector to have grown to 2,511 registered NGOs by 2003; a nine fold increase in the space of just fifteen years.” This situation is not unique to Kenya. Indeed, Njoku (2006) shares the same opinion, as the author narrates that while the “idea and practice of community development” existed within the colonial period, voluntary bodies did not represent themselves or their work in terms of “development” in Africa until much later when the US government and international agencies began to distinguish half the world as “under-developed” and to describe development as a universal goal.” As such, the late 20<sup>th</sup> century may be earmarked as the period that saw the welcome of majority of NGOs, and indeed INGOs, into the continent.

These findings coincide with the findings of another research that observed that NGOs entered the African development space in the late 80s, when in many “African countries, real per capita GDP had fallen and welfare gains that had been achieved since independence in areas like food consumption, health and education had been reversed.” In sub-Saharan Africa, specifically, development, it seemed, had failed. This had been the context in which NGOs had experienced an explosive growth in the West, as well as finding host nations in Africa ((Drewry, 2014).

Similarly, a Heran (2007) inquiry clarified that Africa has undergone an astonishing rise in the number of NGOs in the last 25 years and their impact (2007, 1095). In 1988 with just two hundred and 60 NGOs in Kenya, Hearn states that before 2002 have made the area of NGOs on

the net the nine fable the area under an administration by generation. As this study has demonstrated, this recent explosion of the NGO market in Kenya has major effects on the delivery of public services to the poor and vulnerable.

#### **4.2 The primary issues that the INGOs deal with**

INGOs have broad positions and various approaches in terms of growth, defense and practice and are active in security and development cooperation. However the goals they strive to fulfill and their general mandates are strongly similar. INGOs generally have key goals to eradicate poverty and injustice, gain rights, foster equity between the sexes and social justice, protect the environment and improve civil society and democratic governance (Tandon & Brown, 2013).

In this vein, the researcher provided the key informants with a choice to indicate whether the INGO that they were involved in deals with. These choices included health, poverty and livelihoods, environment, conflict and peace building, advocacy and human rights, and the last entry on the questionnaire allowed the respondent to indicate any other issue that in their view, was not included. Figure 4.2 indicates the findings regarding this issue:

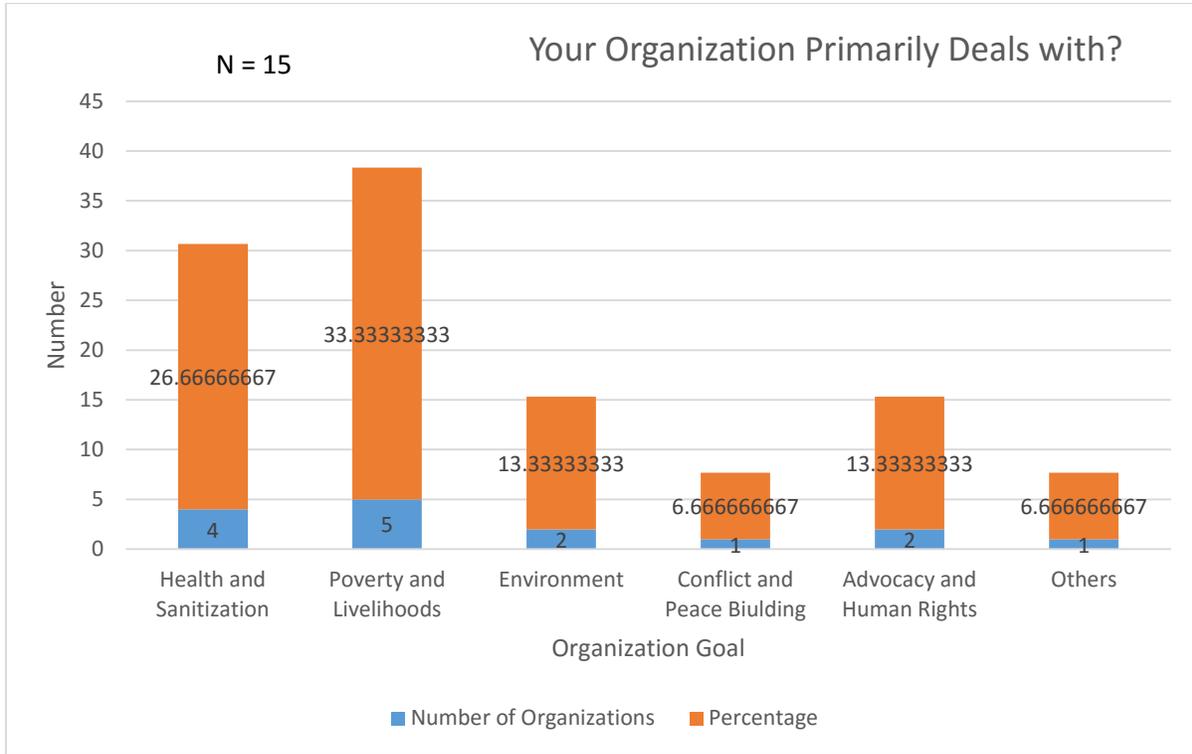


Figure 4. 2: INGOs Goals and Number of Organizations

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

The above results indicated that the key informants viewed their organizations to be primarily concerned with 26.67% for health and sanitization, 33.33 deal with poverty and livelihoods, 13.33% with the environment, 6.7% with conflict and peace building, 13.33 with advocacy and human rights, while the rest consist of only 6.7%.

To back up these findings, during the interviews, the researcher established that 3 of the biggest INGOs list their core objectives as dealing with the lessening of poverty: CARE International “shares a common vision to fight against worldwide poverty and to protect and enhance human dignity,” Oxfam is a “global movement for change, to build a future free from

the injustice of poverty,” and World Vision is “dedicated to working with children, families and communities to overcome poverty and injustice” (Tandon & Brown, 2013).

It was worth noting, however, that the mandates of some INGOs traverse these categories. For instance, The policy of Treatment International includes food and nutrition protection and climate change, water, sanitation and hygiene, economic empowerment of women and children, welfare and emergencies and humanitarian relief. The organization places special emphasis on working alongside women and girls CARE commenced its humanitarian programme in Kenya in 1968, in the capital Nairobi, but has recently diversified to work in many smaller towns around the country, including Kakamega. Save the children, in a similar vein, was founded in the UK in late 1910s to advance the lives of children through different avenues including better education, a focus on health, and provision of economic empowerment, as well as “providing emergency aid in natural disasters, war, and other conflicts.”

This approach may be contrasted to INGOs who work solely on one of the aforementioned issues of concern. For example, One Acre fund, an INGO that focuses on Provision of funding and preparation to support malnutrition for smallholder farmers and to create productive ways to prosper may only be defined as weak society and livelihoods.

In fact, One Acre Fund self describes as a non-profit “social enterprise” that seeks to improve the agricultural sector (and thus food security), by providing smallholder farmers with everything they need to grow more food and earn more income. Oxfam similarly, is an INGO ,

consisting of a cross-border confederation of more than fifteen NGOs, and situated in over ninety countries, that specifically strategizes on how to reduce poverty.

To back these findings, Beisheim and others (2018) explored the utility of INGOs in global social policy. The researchers found out that the contributions that INGOs make may be required across board with regard to development. Because their objectives and expertise differ, INGOs are well positioned to contribute to the human security agenda in different capacities.

Health and sanitation has been a long standing development approach that are intricately intertwined. Water and Sanitation is one of the essential drivers of general wellbeing. Two analysts, McConville and Mihelcic (2007) regularly referred to it as "Wellbeing 101", which implies that once the advancement local area can tie down admittance to clean water and to satisfactory sterilization offices for all individuals, regardless of the distinction in their day to day environments, a colossal fight against a wide range of illnesses will be won (McConville, and Mihelcic, 2007). This halfway clarifies why 26.67% of INGOs in Kakamega County are pointed toward further developing wellbeing, water and disinfection in the area. These three issues of concern give the bedrock to other improvement capacities to succeed.

Poverty and livelihoods, on the other hand, play a critical, yet significantly different role and importance to the development agenda. The means for a better life are to be robbed of being poor. Owing to the fact that poverty is manifested in many ways, many methods are used to support those affected. Strategies concentrate on financial and social deprivations, in different degrees, such as those connected to health, safety and working conditions, as these factors are

better complied with and calculated than the willingness of persons to make meaningful and dignified lives for other people relative to one another. Indeed all types of poverty are relative and arbitrary, since they are considered unacceptable in comparison to social circumstances. In order to accomplish the aims, it is easy to see why the NGOs use a policy for poverty and livelihoods. Research reveals that 33.33% of INGOs are concerned with poverty in Kakamega County and livelihoods. This large proportion reveals the primacy of poverty and livelihoods in the human security and development agenda.

Advocacy and human rights consisted of 13.33%. Advocacy looks to ensure that all individuals in society are able to have their voices heard on the issues that mean the most to them, as well as guarantee that all their human rights are respected. This process seeks to amplify the voices of the weak, and ensure that their views and wishes are considered within the decisions making spectrum of the state and the private segment Human rights, in comparision, The UNDP (1994) program also points out the prominence of human rights in development, reminding us that “we will not enjoy development without security, we will not enjoy security without development, and we will not enjoy either without respect for human rights.”

The association between human rights and the collaboration in construction started to improve in the 1980s. Growing focus has been paid to the use of development collaboration to foster human rights for example by additional funding for democratic governments and human-rights NGOs. Human rights eventually became part of the donor-recipient dialog. The Convention of Lomé III between the EC and its partner states in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific was one of the first

to officially connect and affirm the emerging human rights agenda (signed in 1984). The Preamble of the Convention stated and further established human rights in its Joint Declarations. The most critical facets of growth also became growing. In the long term, the belief arose as the foundation for all growth and equal distribution is the regard for human rights, the rule of law, democratic diversity and efficient, responsible political institutions.

The so-called 'millennium development goals' is a significant milestone in developing the connection between human rights and development (MDGs). At the 2000 UN Millennium Summit, world leaders agreed on a series of time-based and observable priorities and targets to tackle poverty, malnutrition, illnesses, analphabetism, destruction of the environment and sexism against women. Such priorities seek to make concrete change in a variety of particular areas that are deemed important for human development and contribute to broader human rights for example, primary education. The aims provide a basis for the institutions of development collaboration to work coherently together to accomplish a shared aim. Closer collaboration is important as only the MDGs can be achieved by a vast number of nations with significant assistance from outside. Progress in the course of MDGs is periodically measured. The MDGs also brought greater attention on sustainability and poverty reduction approaches focused on human rights (Alston & Robinson, 2005).

From the above analysis, one may deduce that human security and development are complex activities that require a multi sectoral approach to achieve. In this way, it is critical to acknowledge the various INGO functions such as health and sanitation, the environment, poverty and livelihoods, among others, as parts of a whole.

### 4.3 Benefits that the organizations have brought to the people of Kakamega County

Furthermore, the study set out to find out the Perceived benefits that the organizations have brought to the people of Kakamega County by analyzing the opinions of key INGO board members. Figure 4.3 illustrates the overwhelming belief among INGO officials that their initiatives and programs have impacted the people of Kakamega County:

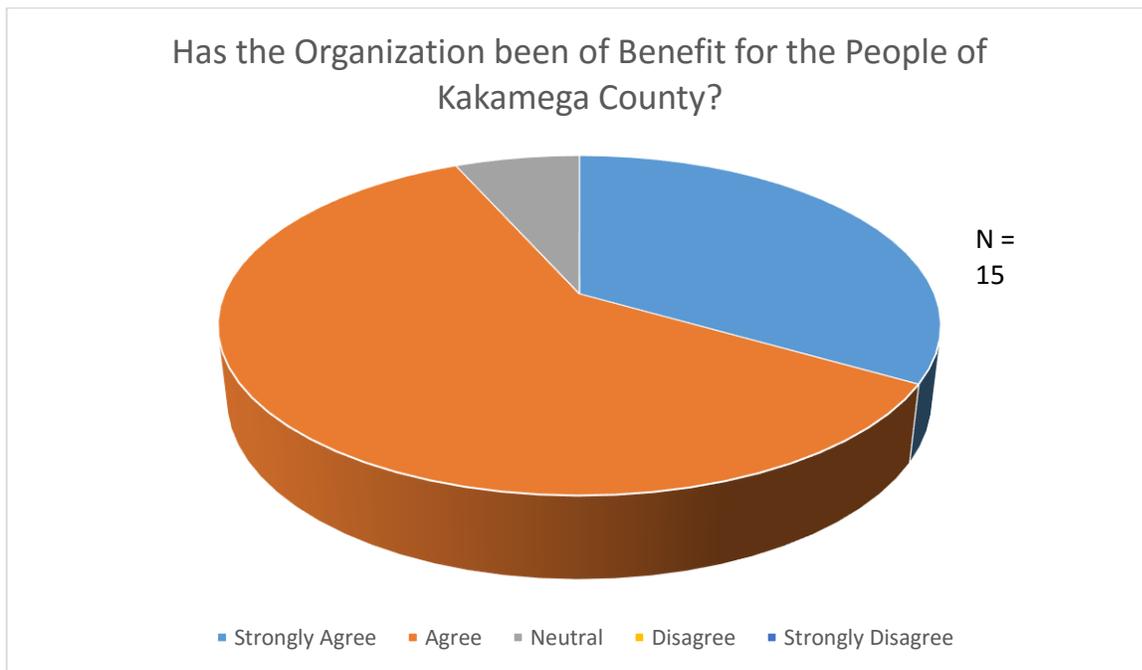


Figure 4. 3: Has the organization been of Benefit for the people of Kakamega County?

Source: Field Data (2019)

Worth noting from the results, however, was that it is common consensus among the INGO officials that much more needs to be done, as the county is still yet to achieve its human security and developmental goals, as one of the respondents had this to say;

INGOs conduct broad-scale development programs, with a wide regional scope and influence, but not aligned with current government programs. Moreover, it's obvious that many families already live in severe poverty from a quick stroll around the county. As such, while I've seen much improvement during my time here, there are still a lot of areas of growth in the region lagging behind (Respondent, 6/4/2019, Kakamega).

However, the research also pointed to some positive impacts that the organizations have brought to Kakamega County. For example, Pathfinder is an international NGO that concentrates majority of its programs on reproductive health – family planning and maternal health. The programs officer voiced that;

Pathfinder International currently has supported three major HIV/AIDS, reproductive health, and family planning projects focusing on: home-based service delivery, adolescents, and capacity-building to improve service quality and availability. We have created a training system in which elected leaders within the communities work together with Pathfinder and the government to make an idea or project self-sustainable. We have also helped to educate the public about contraception methods, HIV/AIDS and have tried to build capacity of their local partners. In addition to dealing with health-based programs, they have incorporated the “Village Community Banking” scheme with their services so as to create an easily accessible banking network (Respondent, 7/4/2019, Lurambi ).

In addition to their work with the government, Pathfinder also takes input from villagebased leaders who dictate the needs of the community and conducts surveys so they know where to cater their services and how their services should be altered to suit the needs of the country.

Pathfinder views health-care as a major priority especially since Tanzania has a very high HIV/AIDS and maternal mortality rate.

One Acre fund, another INGO in Kakamega, seeks to generate positive impact in the lives of smallholder farmers. In the words of a local chief;

One Acre fund, the locals call it acrefund here, have made many farm inputs accessible to our local faemres. Not long ago, for example, my neighbor here life's looked drastically different. His only source of income was from his farm, which is about two acres in size. The land was fertile, but he didn't use good planting techniques or improved seeds and fertilizer. As a result, he usually harvested around eight bags of maize a year, enough to pay school fees for his five children but with little income left over. During the leanest times of the year, the family would often run short of food and ration meals to get by until the next harvest. However, when the guys from OAF came around, things changed. The organization supplied him with hybrid seeds and fertilizer and taught him how to space his crops and plant in rows. The increase in his harvest was astounding. Now, he regularly produces 50–60 bags of grain a year – about seven times more than he did before. He brings me some gifts from the farm from time to time! (Respondent, 6/4/2019, Kakamega)

The survey demonstrates that the overall community was happy with the INGOs work and believes that the INGOs were contributing to the society in the following ways: creation of employment (39%), education (32%), HIV/AIDS (31%) and serving orphans (31%).

Although the objective of a CSO is not necessarily job creation, the findings show it to be a benefit. The responses are not mutually exclusive. Owing to the above revelations from the various respondents, it can be confirmed that indeed a good number of INGOs have had positive impacts in Kakamega County.

In assessing the impact of NGOs in Africa, Nega and Schneider (2014) established that Non-governmental organisations have become key actors in responding to poverty and related suffering. In Africa, NGOs play a leading role in providing health care and education.

However, NGOs also have their detractors who argue that they are receiving growing amounts of donor aid, but aren't the most suitable actors for really improving people's lives. Some critics also insist that the neo-liberal policies advanced by powerful international actors have limited the influence of the state and that NGOs have benefited as a result. Nega and Schneider (2014) explain that NGOs are also criticised for their focus on technical solutions to poverty instead of the underlying issues. So, for example, an NGO might provide water tanks for the poor without addressing the power imbalances that resulted in some having water while others don't. Another criticism is that NGOs are more accountable to their funders than those they serve. Because they are largely dependent on funding, their projects are crafted in line with donor preferences instead of those they supposedly represent. A final criticism relates to the fact that NGO workers tend to be foreigners or local elites. Instead of empowering local populations to organize themselves, NGOs provide employment and a sense of purpose for elites with degrees in subjects like development studies. In Africa, therefore, Nega and Schneider (2014) argued that while NGOs have had their own commendable impacts, they still could do better.

Nonetheless, Matanga (2000), Kamat, (2002) and Amutabi (2006) raise some vital points with regards to the benefits of NGOs in Kenya. Resonating with the findings of this research, these authors established that both civil society and the NGO community in Kenya are poised to play a significant role in determining the direction and future of the country's new development and political era. Particularly, they highlighted the various triumphs in the

sectors of human rights, health, environment and peace building. Regarding human and political rights, Matanga (2000), for instance, explained that the NGO community can be seen to have successfully challenged repressive legislation which would have directed much of their time and resources towards fulfilling bureaucratic requirements and 'therefore demonstrates how NGOs have contributed to the wider political reform movement in Kenya.

#### **4.4 Chapter Summary**

This chapter explored the nature and nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya. In this regard, the researcher discussed categorization of NGOs in the county; how long the organizations have been in Kenya and Kakamega County; the primary issues that the organizations deal with; and the perceived benefits that the organizations have brought to the people of Kakamega County. The findings indicated that majority of the INGOs in the county are concerned with health and sanitization, and poverty and livelihoods. The rest of the INGOs deal with environmental issues, human rights and advocacy, while the rest deal with conflict and peace building. What is more, is that majority of the INGOs established a presence in Kakamega County between the last five to ten years, while there was little no presence of INGOs in the county more than fifteen years ago.

Finally, the research indicated that INGO members agree that there have been a positive impact made by their organizations to the people of Kakamega County. The next chapter presents findings and discussions on the levels and state of human security in Kakamega county, Kenya.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **LEVEL AND STATE OF HUMAN SECURITY IN KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA**

#### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter discussed the levels and state of human security in Kakamega County, Kenya. To this effect, the chapter is subdivided into the following subsections: Demography of the respondents from the selected households in Kakamega County, the health status of the beneficiaries, the socioeconomic status of the people of Kakamega County, the levels and state of education in the county, personal security, community security and food security in the county.

#### **5.1 Demographic Characteristics of House Hold Heads in Kakamega County**

This section discusses the demographic characteristics of the sample that was chosen to represent Kakamega County. Reliable, accessible and timely population data are essential for development planning and assessing progress toward the achievement of the new Sustainable Development Agenda. As development and human security planning broadens its base to include more than traditional macroeconomic concerns, there is a growing awareness that demography and a focus the individual may provide useful contributions to a more holistic view of socioeconomic development (King & Murray, 2001). To this effect, this chapter brings to the fore an examination of the demographic characteristics of the county, in a bid to shed

more light on the levels and state of human security in Kakamega county, Kenya. The researcher examined data from a total of 384 respondents from Malava, Lugari, Matungu, Ikolomani, Lurambi and Shinyalu subcountires, with 80, 72, 47, 35, 99, and 51 sampled household units respectively.

### **5.1.1 Gender of Household Heads**

Human security proposes that the frame of security be broadened to include all kinds of threats: environmental, economic, social, and cultural. Each of these impacts women and men differently, providing unique challenges and opportunities for each gender. Gender is considered a critical element in achieving human security and development goals, in order to effect social and institutional change that leads to sustainable development with equity and growth. Gender dynamics directly translate to the amount of rights, responsibilities and opportunities that all persons enjoy, regardless of whether one is born male or female (Young, 2016). Given that women are usually in a disadvantaged position in the workplace compared to men, promotion of gender elements like equality and mainstreaming implies explicit attention to women's needs and perspectives. At the same time, as Young (2016) noted, there are also significant negative effects of unequal power relations and expectations on men and boys due to stereotyping about what it means to be a male. Instead, both women and men, and boys and girls, should be free to develop their abilities and make choices – without limitations set by rigid gender roles and prejudices – based on personal interests and capacities. As such, for this study, gender was deemed a relevant variable to be assessed.

The researcher thus requested the respondents to indicate their gender during the survey, and the results are illustrated in Figure 5.1:

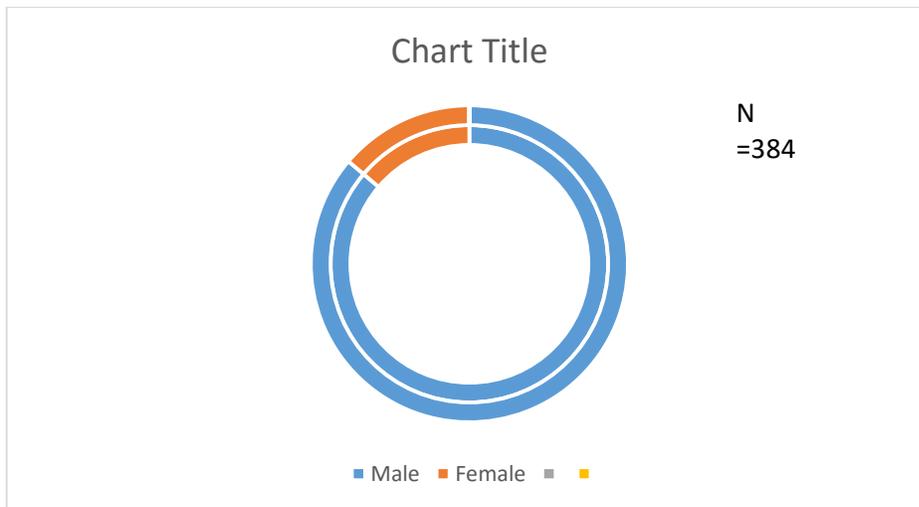


Figure 5. 1: Household Heads

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

The results, as was evident from the illustration of Figure 5.1, indicated an overwhelming 86.19% as male headed households, while a measly 13.80% were headed by females. From these numbers, it was evidenced that the men are the major decision makers in many households, an issue that translates into policy making and the general human security situation of the county. While global trends continue to emphasized the inclusion of both genders in leadership and decision making apparatus of the home and administrative structures, the results of this survey suggested that the same is yet to happen in Kakamega County.

This data is backed up with what the KNBS (2009) found out in their preliminary investigation into the household headship by county in Kenya. The study found out that Kakamega County in general, has a total of 354, 014 households, where females make up for 122, 028, while males make up for 231, 986, and households that are headed by children are 1,665. From this data, it is evident that throughout the county, men remain the major decision makers.

To back this sentiments, a survey by Loison (2019) that assessed gender disparities in the country, observed that, in overall, the Gender Equality Index which is computed based on three critical aspects of human development namely reproductive health, empowerment and economic participation illustrates gender disparities across the ten counties. Kirinyaga County recorded the highest index at 56 per cent, followed by Kisumu at 53 per cent while Turkana County registered the lowest index at 37 per cent. County governments should therefore put measures in place to ensure women and men enjoy the same rights and opportunities across all sectors of society, including economic participation and decision-making.

### **5.2.1 Age and Marital status of Household Heads in Kakamega County**

The role of marital status and age on development indicators has been studied by various scholars. In 2001, Kulik explored the role of the impact of gender and marital status on attitudes and responses to unemployment. His study found out that married men tended to seek jobs more intensively than respondents in the other research groups. Single respondents of both

sexes were more likely than their married counterparts to view unemployment as a personal advantage because it gives them more time to themselves. Lefgren and McIntyre (2006) also confirmed the positive relationship between marriage, age, education and health indicators. As a result, the aspects of age and marital status were viewed to be integral to the findings of this study.

The study sought to find out the age of household heads in Kakamega County. The results from the 384 respondents are illustrated in Figure 5.2. The study indicated that household heads of ages 18-24 were 22, ages 25-35 were 54, ages 36-45 were 114, ages 46-55 were 121, while ages 56 and above were 73. These studies coincided with the 2010 Kenyan Census results and the KCIDP (2013) county integrated plan that indicated that most households in the county are headed by individuals above age 35. However, a run-through of the KNBS (2009) data indicated that Kakamega County has the highest number of children headed households. This mainly caused by factors like death of parents, divorce and abandonment of children. The contents of the findings of this study, together with those of KNBS (2009) further pointed the researcher to the need for human security interventions in the county.

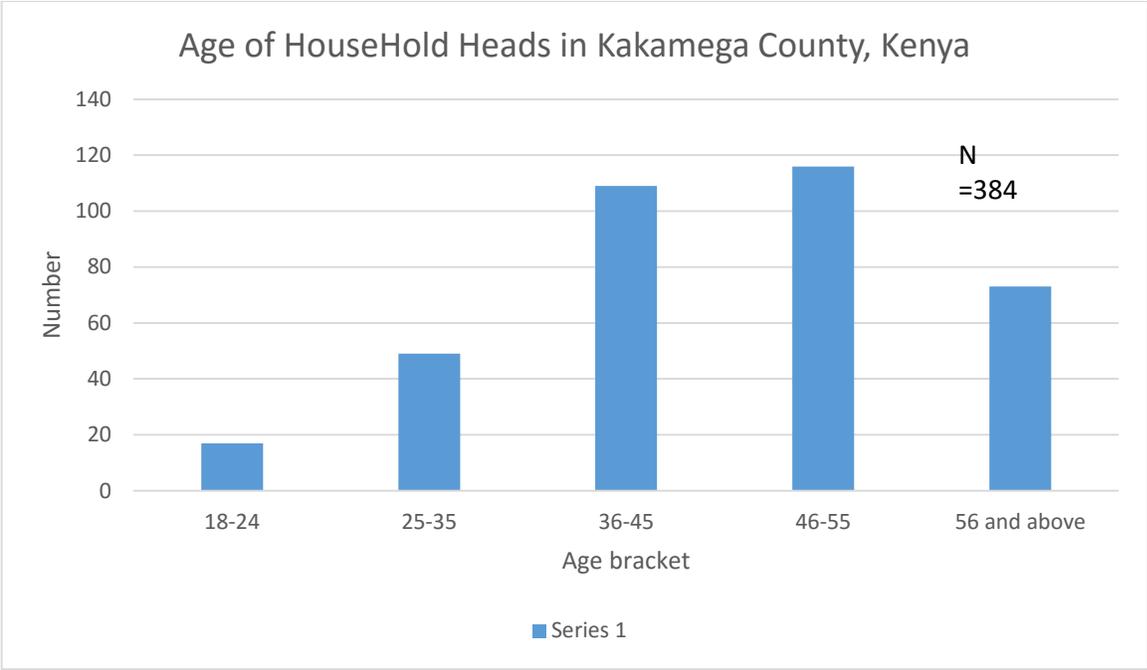


Figure 5. 2: Age of Household heads in Kakamega County

Source: Field Work, 2019.

When it comes to marital status, the findings illustrated, as is evident in Table 5.1, that 46% were married, 25% were single, and 19% were widowed, while the remaining 10% were either divorced or separated. The results showed that majority of the respondents were married, as opposed to single parented households.

Table 5. 1: Marital Status of Household Heads

<b>Marital Status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Married	<b>177</b>	46
Single	<b>96</b>	<b>25</b>
Widowed	<b>73</b>	<b>19</b>
Divorced or Separated	<b>38</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Total</b>		

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

## **5.2 Healthcare situation in Kakamega County**

Health has been recognized in most constitutional documents as a human right. According to Di Marco and others (2020), equity of access to health care should be one of the main policy goals. Every national health system should ensure universal access to adequate quality care and avoid unfair and unjustified discrimination between individuals, groups and communities. The striving for equity in access to health care must be a fundamental objective of the process of health sector reform.

The study sought to seek the healthcare situation in Kakamega County, as an indicator of the current level of human security. The researcher broke down the variable healthcare into availability of medical facilities, mortality rate, and healthcare utilization behavior such as

health seeking choices. As Ansah and Powell-Jackson (2013) illustrate, the healthcare research community relies on health seeking behavior as a standard tool for measuring healthcare levels.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the healthcare situation in Kakamega County with regard to life expectancy, as compared to the national average:

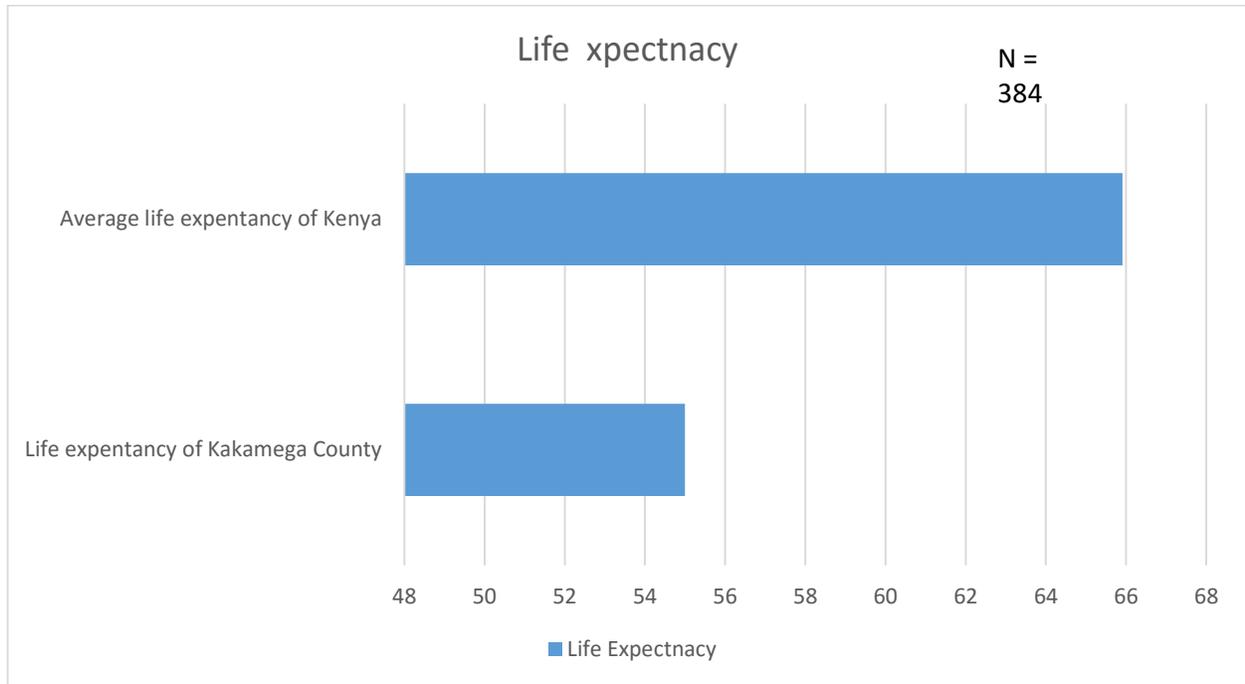


Figure 5. 3: Life Expectancy in Kakamega County compared to the National Average.

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

In the same vein, the research found out that the infant mortality rate of Kenya is 30.6 deaths per 1000 live births, as compared to 70.2 deaths per 1000 live births (KCIDP, 2013).

These results indicate that Kakamega county is doing much worse in the healthcare indicators that were investigated. In this regard, the findings suggested that, despite the obvious improvements, the healthcare situation in the county is still some way off the desired level.

### **5.3 Education levels in Kakamega County**

The study sought to assess and establish the levels of education of the respondents. Education is an important indicator of human security. According to Ozturk, (2008), education in every sense is one of the fundamental factors of development and human security. No country can achieve sustainable economic development without substantial investment in human capital. Education enriches people's understanding of themselves and world. As Ozturk, (2008) opines, it improves the quality of their lives and leads to broad social benefits to individuals and society. Education raises people's productivity and creativity and promotes entrepreneurship and technological advances. In addition it plays a very crucial role in securing economic and social progress and improving income distribution.

Table 5. 2: Education Levels in Kakamega County

<b>Education Level</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Illiterate	21	5
Basic Education	56	14.58
Primary	141	36.71

Secondary	109	28.38
College	34	8.85
University	23	5.98
<b>Total</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

The tabulated results indicated that Illiterate respondents were 21 (5%), Basic Education 56 (14.58%), Primary 141 (36.71%), Secondary 109 (28.38%), College 34 (8.85%), University, 23 (5.98%). With a universal objective of achieving universal healthcare, a 5% illiteracy rate among the respondents is an indicator of an education sector that still lags behind. This viewpoint was cemented by the low university going respondents.

Komen (2015), also seeking to establish the education levels in the county, backs the above information. He found out that over half of the population have not had access to higher education. What is more is that a majority (40%) of the respondents in Komen’s (2015) study were primary school certificate holders. Education level influences farmer’s access to information, as well as their ability to understand and appreciate the technical aspects of development efforts, and how they can be used for the betterment of the community. In this regard, a lower education level is highly likely to result in lower levels of development and human security.

However, it is important to take a cautionary note with issues to do with education. Because of the wide range of services provided in the education sector and since it takes years to see the

actual outcome from these services (if it were possible to evaluate the programs in place while trying to isolate other factors), impact analysis of this sector would best be judged over time.

#### **5.4 Food security in Kakamega County**

The relationship between human security and food security is predicated on the idea of the full realization of the human right to adequate food, as a fundamental human right, and one that leaves no one behind. The right to adequate food is realized when every man, woman and child, alone or in community with others, has the physical and economic access at all times to adequate food or means for its procurement (Kaldor, 2007). As such, food security becomes a fundamental indicator of the human security levels of a particular region.

Various methods may be employed to measure food security. Pinstруп-Andersen (2009) wrote that there are “five commonly used methods that can be used to assess food security: i) the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) method for estimating calories available per capita at the national level; ii) household income and expenditure surveys; iii) individual's dietary intake; iv) anthropometry; and v) experience-based food insecurity measurement scales.” The researcher employed the dietary intake method to measure the food security levels in the county.

According to Pinstруп-Andersen (2009), Individual's dietary intake can be measured through different methods including: i) 24-hour recall; ii) food frequency questionnaires; iii) food records kept by individuals or by an observer. All dietary intake methods need to make use of a reference time frame. Whereas some of the methods rely on the memory of participants (24-

hour recall, food frequency questionnaire), others rely on the recording of foods, as they are consumed, by the study participant, a proxy or an observer. Portion size estimations can rely on assisted memory (e.g. using food models) or foods can actually be weighted before and right after consumption. These portion size estimations are needed to estimate food group counts as well as nutrient intakes, the latter provided that culturally appropriate and valid food composition data bases are available. Lastly, to interpret the nutrient intake findings it is important to have cut-off points for determining the proportion of the sample or population at risk of deficiencies for different nutrients. The advantages include i) it measures food consumption directly and not only food availability; ii) it addresses both dietary quality (macro and micronutrients) and caloric intakes at the individual level; iii) it allows for mapping from the local to the national level, and the determinants and consequences of food insecurity at the individual level can be examined; this is important for understanding, for example, intra-household food consumption patterns and how it is influenced by gender; iv) different dietary intake methods can be used to understand recent (e.g., 24-hour recall) vs. longer term dietary intake patterns (e.g. food frequency questionnaires) (Pinstrup-Andersen, 2009). While this method harbors some disadvantages such as this method depending on the respondents' memory, the researcher weighed out the pros and cons and decided that this method was the most appropriate in this context.

As a measure of food security, the researcher asked the respondents about their individual dietary intake. According to Keenan et al. (2001), individual dietary intake is one of the standard measures of assessing levels of food security. Figure 5.4 illustrates the dietary intake of the respondents in the investigation.

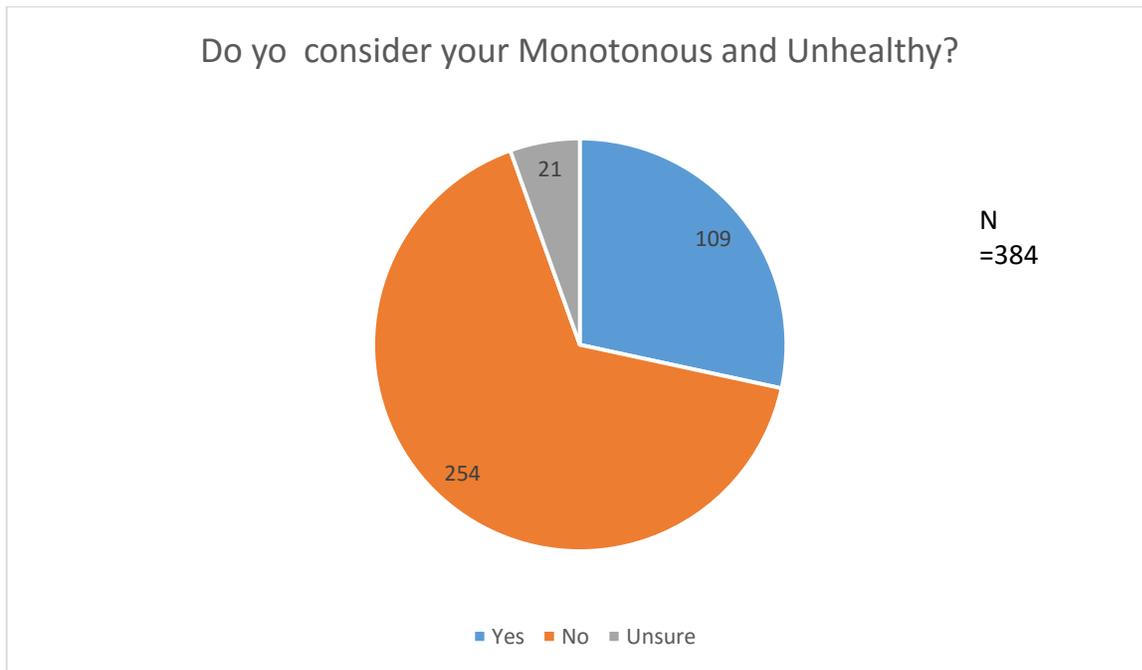


Figure 5. 4: Do you consider your Diet Monotonous and Unhealthy?

**Source: Field Work, 2019**

According to Kakamega County Website (2018), in May 2018, the County Government of Kakamega launched a county plant clinic programme to control spread of pests and diseases in plants in the county at Bukura Agricultural Training College, Lurambi sub county. Kakamega County Deputy Governor H.E. Prof. Philip Museve Kutima who was the chief guest called on

the newly trained county plant doctors to move with speed and contain spread of pests and diseases such as Fall Army Worm threatening the county's food security. He reminded farmers that the clinic is in line with the recommendations of a taskforce report on Agriculture and Livestock released by H.E. Governor Wycliffe Ambetsa Oparanya during his first term in office.

In this regard, the county, despite various food security challenges, ranks relatively well, and is making sustainable steps towards becoming food secure.

A report by the Kenya Agricultural Research Institute (KARI) (2020) backed the findings of this study. It illustrates that in the recent years, and especially starting from 2008, the country has been facing severe food insecurity problems. These are depicted by a high proportion of the population having no access to food in the right amounts and quality. Official estimates indicated, from the report, that over ten million people are food insecure with majority of them living on food relief. Households are also incurring huge food bills due to the high food prices. Maize being staple food due to the food preferences is in short supply and most households have limited choices of other food stuffs ("Food Security Report (Prepared by Kenya Agricultural Research Institute | Food Security Portal", 2020).

However, given the central role the agricultural sector plays in the economy, the Government is in the process of finalizing the development of the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy (ASDS). One of the counties that was earmarked to be part of this project was Kakamega County, owing to its promising role in in the agricultural sector. The overall aim of this

strategy is to strategically make the agricultural sector a key driver for achieving the 10 per cent annual economic growth rate expected under the economic pillar of the Vision 2030 ("Food Security Report", 2020). Through the ASDS, the Government aims at transforming the agricultural sector into a profitable economic activity capable of attracting private investment and providing gainful employment for the people.

## **5.5 Chapter Summary**

This chapter focused on the level and state of human security in Kakamega County. To aid this investigation, the researcher assessed the demographic characteristics of the respondents, and thereafter, analyzed and discussed the healthcare situation, education levels and food security levels of the county. The findings indicated an ailing healthcare and education sector in the county. However, with regard to food security, the county continues to make encouraging strides towards a food secure region. Overall, the findings indicate human security levels that fall below the national average, despite the many encouraging steps by both the private and public sector to achieving the elusive goal of human security. The next chapter presents findings and discussions on the challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of human security goals in Kakamega county, Kenya.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR INGOs IN THE PURSUIT OF HUMAN SECURITY GOALS IN KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA**

#### **6.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents findings and discussions on the challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of human security goals in Kakamega county, Kenya. To this end, the chapter consists of the following subsections: Challenges faced by INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County, and the opportunities present for INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County, Kenya.

#### **6.1 Challenges faced by INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County**

The challenges and opportunities recorded further down were extracted from the FGDs, questionnaires and interviews that the researcher held with various respondents including some members of the local administration, INGO board members, and the household heads that were part of the study sample. The actions of INGOs in Kenya and Kakamega County are hindered by numerous reasons. These reasons, in turn, pause an effect on INGO self-sufficiency. For example, the organizational climate of NGOs defines the productivity of NGO programs and projects. In this regard, success and production of NGOs are influenced by external and internal conditions. The following figure represents, from the findings, an overview of the challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of their Human Security goals in Kakamega County:

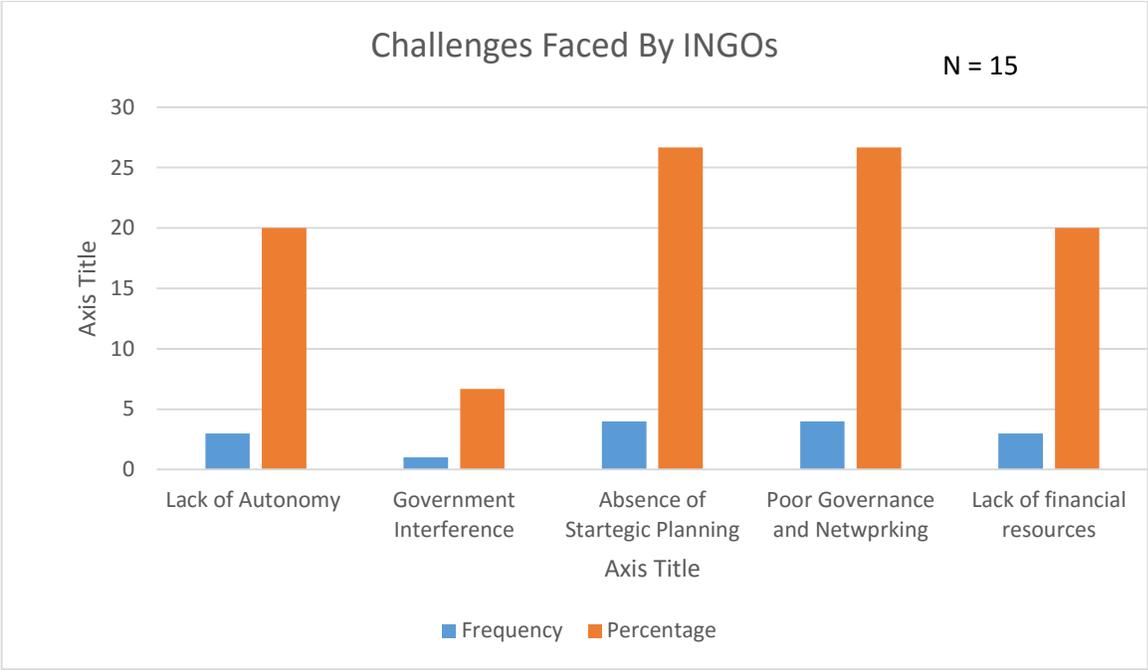


Figure 6. 1: Challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of their Human Security goals in Kakamega County

Source: Field Data (2019)

From their own admission, 20% of respondents agreed that a lack of autonomy was a problem. 6.67% agreed that government interference was the leading factor for the inability of INGOs to pursue the desired outcomes. Curiously enough, 26.67% of the respondents rated an absence of strategic planning as the main issue that INGOs face in Kakamega County, Kenya. The same number of respondents ranked poor Governance and networking as a key challenge for INGOs in the county, while the rest opined that a lack of financial resources was the main issue at hand. In this regard, the research suggested that the main challenges for INGOs in Kakamega county remain poor governance and networking, as well as an absence of strategic planning.

### **6.1.1 Poor Governance and Networking**

26.7% of the respondents in the research suggested that poor governance and networking was a challenge for INGOs in their pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County of Kenya. In fact, one of the respondents lamented;

In this administrative zone, the leadership of our civil society network which has been enjoying cordial relations with the government in the past, has started to rub shoulders with the government in regard to policy. The local and central government have not been tolerant of criticism. Our leadership in turn expressed its worries, albeit in confidence with our stakeholders, that their relationship may be jeopardized once they start to engage in public expenditure tracking. From our own independent research of NGO networks, many did not engage even once with the local or central government in the last three years and have not demanded participation in policy dialogue (Respondent 8/4/2019).

Another respondent confirmed poor governance and networking as an issue when he expressed the resolutions of a previous sectoral meeting that;

Poor Governance was recognized within the sector as a whole, within the NGO Council and within individual NGOs. Knowledge of good governance varied widely, with some regions indicating very little understanding of why NGOs are required to have Boards or what their roles and functions should be. It is difficult to achieve good governance with founders who wished to own their NGOs for their own purposes. This issue is fundamental to NGO accountability and transparency. Many NGOs mismanage their resources, quite often with the involvement and encouragement of their Boards that eat their NGOs resources. Finding Board members can be difficult if you are not willing to pay them or provide allowances (Respondent 9/4/2019).

Poor governance and networking was also a challenge that Walton and others (2016) observed. They lamented that the apparent binary view that dominates NGOs (it is either bottom up or top-down, never a mixture) causes governance problems. Top-down approaches focus on global norms and institutions while bottom-up approaches focus on the local dynamics

surrounding states and populations in the Global South. What is more, when NGOs agree on a suitable strategy, there is rarely a good enough team to execute the mostly ambitious objectives.

Another study by Moore and Stewart (2010), in assessing governance in NGOs, opined that official aid funding for the development NGO sector grew fast in the late 1980s and early 1990s. These halcyon days are, however, over. Thinkers within the NGO community are now concerned with how to adapt to the end of the funding boom, and to correct its adverse effects. However, in spite of many calls to reorganize, re-think, and professionalize, one major issue has been largely ignored: the scope for introducing collective self-regulation of the organizational structure and procedures of NGOs in developing countries. The authors argue that solving governance issues could make a major contribution to solving several problems currently faced by NGOs.

### **6.1.2 Absence of Strategic Planning**

From the research, it was established that few INGOs have strategic plans which would enable them to have ownership over their mission, values and activities. This leaves them vulnerable to the whims of donors and makes it difficult to measure their impact over time. With the use of mean score and standard deviation, responses with mean score of more than 3.0 were grouped as major problems. INGOs that responded the questionnaire identified following problems which falls under the category of major problems and frequently occurred to INGOs.

Based on the mean scores in Table 6.1, the INGO members identified coordination as the main strategic and implementation problem, followed by issues to do with finance.

Table 6. 1: Major Strategic and Implementation Challenges for INGOs

Strategy Implementation problems	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Co-ordination was not sufficiently effective	15	3.87	1.125
People are not measured or rewarded for executing the plan	15	3.60	1.242
Insufficient financial resources to execute the strategy	15	3.53	1.187
Major problems surfaced which had not been identified earlier	15	3.47	1.060
Changes in security levels impact implementation	15	3.40	0.986
Took more time than originally allocated	15	3.40	1.352
Lack of stakeholder commitment	15	3.27	1.100
Key formulators of the strategic decision did not play an active role in implementation	15	3.13	1.356

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

The research findings of this study resonate with the discussions of Balcik and others (2010) who pointed out that humanitarian relief environments engage a large number and variety of actors, each with different missions, interests, capacity, and logistics expertise. Therefore, there is much concern about the coordination across the value chain and amongst the stakeholders available. Coordination challenges may be found in cultural, political and institutional capacities. Poor NGO coordination between the national and provincial levels is also common.

They have resulted in firstly, the absence of a collective voice, secondly, slow progress on NGO self-regulation, third, the fragmentation and duplication of NGO projects, fourth, little understanding of aid effectiveness, fifth, poor engagement in the aid coordination mechanisms,

and lastly, Balcik and others (2010) observed that a lack of coordination results in a poor working relationship with the government. Thus, NGO coordination efforts are relatively loose although progress has been made in the Global South since the 1990s.

### **6.1.3 Lack of Autonomy and Government Interference**

The research suggested that while this was not a major problem for INGOs, it nevertheless exists in the county. For the most part, the respondents acknowledged a cooperative partnership between the government and the INGOs in the county. One of the respondents observed that;

In Kenya NGOs are encouraged to collaborate with the government although the government is often critical of the high profile of NGOs' advocacy campaigns especially against government policy. The Government, especially the national government, immortalizes its commitment to enhancing social integration within the context of diversified political groups, local and international NGOs and pressure groups. In spite of these assurances, NGOs and the government are yet to perceive each other as partners/collaborators in a practical sense (Respondent, 9/4/2019).

To back these sentiments, Mwanzia and Strathdee (2016) assessed the problems of NGOs, and implied that the governments and INGOs, in their common goal of development, were sometimes "strange bedfellows." With regard to a lack of autonomy, Kameri-Mbote, (2000) reiterated that Kenyan NGOs, like many other Southern non-governmental organizations

(SNGOs), have over the years maintained links with their Northern counterparts. In 1988 approximately 10% of the external aid used by Kenyan NGOs was through direct funding. The rest (about 90%) was through Northern non-governmental organizations (NNGOs). It is important to note that this type of NGO “dependency” is perceived as a threat to NGO autonomy and accountability to the public. While some NGOs claim autonomy in their operations, basing them on their mission and objectives rather than any dictates from other stakeholders, the reality of the situation is that the donors’ influence is normally a factor to contend with. It is trite knowledge that “whoever pays the piper calls the tune.”

## **6.2 Opportunities present for INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County, Kenya**

When asked about the opportunities for INGOs in the pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County, Kenya, the respondents observed that local participation and networking, as well as better strategic planning were some of the ways INGOs could aid in the pursuit of the human security agenda in the county. Figure 6.2 indicates these responses:

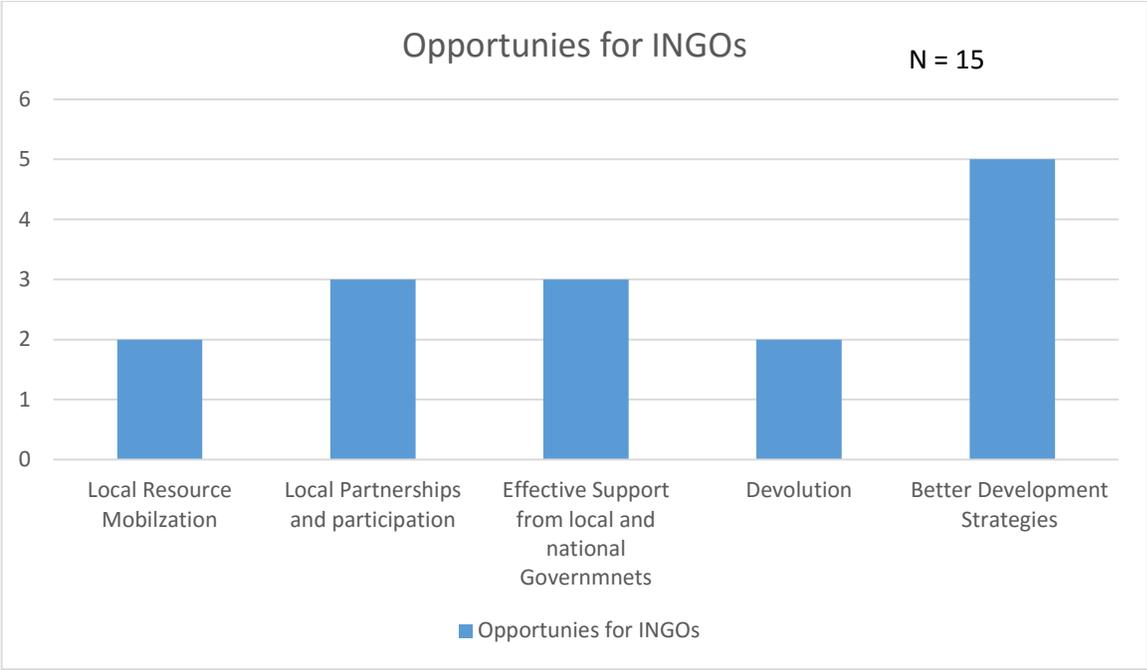


Figure 6. 2: Opportunities for INGOs in the Pursuit of Human Security in Kakamega County, Kenya

**Source: Field Data (2019)**

As the findings revealed, some of the opportunities for INGOs were local resource mobilization (13%), local partnerships and participation (20%), effective support from local and national governments (20%), devolution, and better development strategies (13%).

With regard to local resource mobilization, one of the respondents opined that:

It provides potential for NGOs to raise funds from local businesses, individuals, government and locally generated income. To do this NGOs must have strong governance and accountability mechanisms, clear strategies and local credibility. Local Networking provides opportunities for mutual learning, identifying appropriate development initiatives, generating learning resources, improving coordination and cooperation with local government, harmonizing approaches to development, and pursuing effective local advocacy. Form consortia to source funding from the donor community (larger projects to access larger donors) (Respondent, 12/4/2019).

Resource mobilization is a valuable component for strengthening an NGO. Unfortunately there is a lot of competition for donor resources and in many cases for an organization to secure resources it depends on how well it can compete with other organizations to raise funds; and on how good it is at exploring other ways to source for resources. Other ways may include sourcing these resources from local fundraising techniques. With many outside and foreign donors changing tact and priorities, it remains critical for INGOs to find other sources for funding and expertise. As one of the respondents lamented, the resources (including funds) of One Acre Fund, a leading organization focused on food security in Kakamega, has been facing shortfalls when the major bilateral donors were shifting priorities towards other projects outside the traditional scope of the organization.

By mobilizing local resources to support their organizations, according to Channell (2000), INGOs can benefit through firstly, Sense of ownership. They will take more control of activities which contribute directly to the positive development of local communities by donating their time and energy to residents, institutions, businesses and other institutions. The sense of ownership" stems from the joy and satisfaction of recognizing that you have made your share of life better for your friends. Local mobilization of money also facilitates social capital building of NGOs. Social capital refers to the importance of social networks and the greater desire of people and entities, regardless of these partnerships, to support each other. The NGOs are more likely to develop long lasting ties with other entities and organisations by finding local help. These partnerships add to the community's social capital.

In addition, another respondent from the local administration reiterated that devolution has become a key avenue to spark local development and growth. He said;

The CDF, Constituency Aids Funds, Youth, Women, Water, and other locally available development funding were previously so hard to attain and incorporate into development thinking. However, with the new devolved system, INGOs can take advantage of the easier to access government, that now has less bureaucratic issues. Funding from central government, through the NGO Board, is also a still a possibility (Respondent 12/4/2019).

This evidence resonates with what Latha and Prabhakar (2011) found out in their study in India, a country that is also located in the Global South. The following have been the proposed solutions to NGO issues in India. Firstly, the Government of India must vastly expand grant assistance laws and regulations and incentivize further the process for NGOs. Simultaneously, Latha and Prabhakar (2011) shared their opinion that the state should name enquiry commissions or panels to audit for abuse by NGOs. The Committee members shall routinely track and oversee the operations of NGOs. They also recommended that alumni of universities, colleges, schools hold public lectures, seminars, conference events and other programs and make use of the local media to emphasize the value of volunteerism, the success stories of non-governmental organizations, and inspire the public to engage in voluntarism.

In terms of improving strategies, it is critical for INGOs to start by analyzing the quality and effectiveness of their boards of governors. Pradeep (2005), backing up the findings of this study, addressed how INGOs should be governed well, and how their governance affects their overall strategic development plans. Pradeep reminded the reader that the concern identified here is that boards can become weighed down by trying to represent all stakeholders—so-called constituency boards—and in the process sacrifice effectiveness. INGOs should therefore

properly define the role of directors and ensure regular assessments take place looking at the board's role, tasks and practices. Internal discussions should be used to identify gaps in a board's skills or knowledge.

INGOs should also consider other ways stakeholders can be heard at board level. This could include direct engagement, either face-to-face or virtually. NGOs should also investigate the increasing use of tech, such as board portals, as a means of improving effectiveness. There are no easy answers to NGO governance, according to Pradeep (2005). Recent scandals have raised the stakes and undermined trust. Addressing those issues is therefore, important. A charity that loses the faith of its donors could soon find itself out of the picture. Those who suffer most are beneficiaries whose lives would otherwise be worse off without the intervention of effective NGOs. At the root of trust, however, is good governance. Put that in place and the good work can continue without distractions.

INGOs try to provide for the marginalized areas of society and the people that are vulnerable. Kenya is a developing country needing this kind of active, focused and committed development organizations. Those organizations should then be funded by the State, the leaders, and sponsors such as politicians together with the public in order to assist them in solving their problems locally.

### **6.3 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed the challenges that INGOs in Kakamega County face in their pursuit of Human security. Issues to do with poor governance and networking, absence of effective strategic planning, lack of autonomy and government interface were noted. However, the future for INGOs as carriers of the human security agenda still remains hopeful, as opportunities exists with regard to local resource mobilization, local partnerships and participation, effective support from local and national governments, devolution, and better development strategies. The next chapter presents a systematic summary, conclusions and recommendations section.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.0 Introduction**

Drawing from the findings of this study, this section provides a systematic discussion of the findings. As such, the first section provides a summary of the discussion of the findings. It is followed by a conclusions section, where the researcher elucidates the study conclusions, for each of the three study objectives, as well as providing an overall conclusion for the study. Naturally, the chapter is comes to a close with recommendations for both policy practice and suggestions for further research.

#### **7.1 Summary of the findings**

The study set out to assess the contribution of INGOs activities toward promoting Human Security in Kakamega County of Kenya. The specific objectives of this study were to: examine the nature and extent of INGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, Kenya; to assess the, levels and state of human security in Kakamega county, Kenya; and third, to evaluate the challenges that INGOs face in the pursuit of Human Security goals in Kakamega County, Kenya.

Regarding the nature and extent of IGOs involvement in the human security space of Kakamega County, the study found out that, while the Kenyan NGO coordination act was established in 1991, the first INGO to be based and operate in Kakamega County was until

2001. In addition, only three INGOs confirmed to have existed for 10 – 15 years. From this evidence, majority of the INGOs in Kakamega County have been present for between 5-10 years, making up 57% of the results. What is more, the study found out that INGOs are tasked with wide-ranging functions in human security and development assistance, and employ mixed methodologies founded upon varying models of development and security. In Kakamega County, these organizations are primarily with concerned with 26.67% for health and sanitization, 33.33% with poverty and livelihoods, 13.33% with the environment, 6.7% with conflict and peace building, 13.33 with advocacy and human rights, while the rest consist of only 6.7%. Regardless of the varied and diverse roles, the results revealed that that there have been a positive impact made by their organizations to the people of Kakamega county, including issues to do with advocacy, health, food security, and education.

Concerning the levels and state of human security in Kakamega County of Kenya, the study revealed firstly, that an overwhelming 86.19% as male headed households, while a measly 13.80% were headed by females. Furthermore, regarding demographics, the study indicated that household heads of ages most housholds were headed by persons from ages 36 and above. In the same vein, the research found out that the infant mortality rate of Kenya is 30.6 deaths per 1000 live births, as compared to 70.2 deaths per 1000 live births. In the education sector, the tabulated results indicated that Illiterate respondents were 21 (5%), Basic Education 56 (14.58%), Primary 141 (36.71%), Secondary 109 (28.38%), College 34 (8.85%), University,

23 (5.98%). With a universal objective of achieving universal healthcare, a 5% illiteracy rate among the respondents is an indicator of an education sector that still lags behind. This viewpoint was cemented by the low university going respondents. The findings indicated an ailing healthcare and education sector in the county. However, with regard to food security, the county continuous to make encouraging strides towards a food secure region. Overall, the findings indicate human security levels that fall below the national average, despite the many encouraging steps by both the private and public sector to achieving the elusive goal of human security.

Concerning the challenges that INGOs face in their pursuit of Human Security goals in Kakamega County, the study made the following findings. 20% of respondents agreed that a lack of autonomy was a problem. 6.67% agreed that government interference was the leading factor for the inability of INGOs to pursue the desired outcomes. 26.67% of the respondents rated an absence of strategic planning as the main issue that INGOs face in Kakamega County, Kenya. The same number of respondents ranked poor Governance and networking as a key challenge for INGOs in the county, while the rest opined that a lack of financial resources was the main issue at hand. Moreover, as the results revealed, some of the opportunities for INGOs were local resource mobilization (13%), local partnerships and participation (20%), effective support from local and national governments (20%), devolution, and better development strategies (13%).

## **7.2 Conclusion**

Based on the first objective of the study, the investigation identified INGOs that have been involved in the human security issues of Kakamega County, especially in the last 10- 15 years. Primarily, these INGOs deal with the following issues: health, poverty and livelihoods, environment, conflict and peace building, and advocacy and human rights. In this regard, the INGOs have been beneficial in addressing many socio-economic problems in the region including food insecurity, and diseases such as HIV/AIDS.

Based on the second objective, the study concluded that the county experiences an ailing healthcare and education sector in the county. However, with regard to food security, the county continues to make encouraging strides towards a food secure region. Overall, the findings indicate human security levels that fall below the national average, despite the many encouraging steps by both the private and public sector to achieving the elusive goal of human security.

Based on the third objective, the study concluded that INGOs in Kakamega County face the following problems in their pursuit of human security: poor governance and networking, absence of effective strategic planning, lack of autonomy and government interference.

Nonetheless, the future for INGOs as carriers of the human security agenda still remains hopeful, as opportunities exist with regard to local resource mobilization, local partnerships

and participation, effective support from local and national governments, devolution, and better development strategies.

The overall conclusion of this study is that INGOs have had an expanded presence in Kakamega County through the years, bringing with them many benefits with regard to health, poverty and livelihoods, environment, conflict and peace building, and advocacy and human rights. Nonetheless, they face challenges in the areas of governance, autonomy, and government interface. In this regard, the County's state of human security still remains below the desired levels, with the aforementioned challenges limiting the performance of the present INGOs. Therefore, there is need for more stakeholder involvement, better cooperation with the local and national governments, as well as better development strategies in order to achieve the desired developmental and human security goals.

### **7.3 Recommendations**

Centered on the research findings, analysis, discussion and conclusions of this study, the subsequent recommendations were made:

Firstly, the researcher recommends that INGOs should reassess their short and long term strategic plans. They should continuously align their strategies with the organizational resources and capabilities. Regular reviews and strategic surveillance is highly recommended in order to proactively tackle any potential strategy impeders that might distort the strategic intent. Strategies should be flexible in a way that the organization can adjust to opportunities

and threats coming from the uncertain external environment. From the study, many NGOs appeared to be incapable of predicting what they will do even in one or two months. Most of their activities look like one time shots. However, a single event is not enough to change the attitude towards some problem. In part, it happens because the activists are trying to diversify their activities, organize events of different kinds and in different areas so that they do not let themselves drown in monotony. Yet, this only blurs the public role of an NGO. Obviously, civic activists should start learning how to do a long-term planning and develop their strategy.

Meanwhile, it is recommended that the gap between the government and INGOs be bridged. The research established that the government's interaction with the NGOs is not necessarily adequate due to bureaucracy, long procedures, and lack of transparency. Bridging this relationship by taking advantage of mechanisms such as devolution will improve the efficacy of INGOs in the pursuit of human security. Other avenues for bridging this gap include opening avenues for INGOs to be part of dialogues on governance (encouraging public debates and consultation, encouraging the right to organize interest groups) and reforming taxation policies (on income, local fund-raising, duties or imports, and VAT, as well as involving them in policy making. In the same vein, better relationship with the government means that the INGO coordination board can have better access to the records of NGOs. Maintaining NGO records with the NGO Coordination Board will enable NGOs to received regular information and gain access to any possible government-CSO partnership opportunities. The relationship (or lack of it) between

INGOs and both the national government will be crucial for the missions and objectives of INGOs.

Third, that INGOs should institutionalize and integrate local participation by employing participatory methodologies to guide them when working with their beneficiaries for their development projects to be successful. For INGOs to bring about development to the communities they work with, it is imperative that they effectively employ participatory methodologies for their beneficiaries to take initiative and action in planning for the development of their communities. For instance, use Volunteers: Kenya has a huge supply of idealistic, young, energetic and well educated graduates who are unemployed or underemployed. Many of them are searching for opportunities to serve their country and get work experience. There are also many older experienced professionals willing to give their time to INGOs. Many companies will loan experienced personnel to INGOs. Finally, there are opportunities to appoint international volunteers to fill vacancies that would otherwise require unavailable funds to fill. Student exchange programmes also offer INGOs low cost human resources that can support research, documentation and staff capacity building initiatives. Such a participatory method ensures that more stakeholders remain in the loop, for the overall good of the country.

#### **7.4 Suggestions for Further Research**

Taking into consideration the scope, focus, and results of this study, this section proposes some themes that may have not been adequately explored in this study, that warrant further research.

These are as follows:

- i. Further research needs to be conducted on the relationship and cooperative nature of INGOs and other CSOs in order to fully understand the full extent of the nature and impact of the Civil Society in the country.
- ii. Further research may be conducted to shed more light on the dynamics of strategic implementation of INGO projects, as the current study did not focus on challenges of strategy implementation such as community participation, strategic planning and stakeholder coordination.
- iii. Further research is also required to explore the financial and operational technicalities that are required in order to fulfill the goals of INGOs. Specific issues of concern may include exploring the types of flexible funding mechanisms that are effective for INGOs, and analyzing some of the governance and administrative shifts that INGOs need to improve their success rates.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: **Informed Consent Letter**

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a post graduate student at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, carrying out a research study on the “International Non-Governmental Organizations’ Activities towards Promotion of Human Security in Kakamega County, Kenya,” in partial fulfillment for the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Peace and Conflict Studies of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. I kindly request you to assist with the research, and all: all responses will be handled confidentially and will be used only for this study.

The information collected will be used to make recommendations for peace and conflict studies. It is the hope of this study that it will provide noteworthy insights and contributions to the wider field of peace and conflict studies, for the county, the country, and the globe.

Your cooperation and assistance will be highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance.

Yours sincerely,

Bruno Muchilwa

CPC/G/01-57801/2016.

Appendix II: Questionnaire for House hold heads

**INTERNATIONAL NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS' ACTIVITIES  
TOWARDS PROMOTION OF HUMAN SECURITY IN KAKAMEGA COUNTY,  
KENYA**

***HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE***

<b>PART A: PERSONAL INFORMATION</b>
1. GENDER
2. DISTRICT:
3. AGE:
4. COUNTY:
5. SUB-COUNTY:
8. HOUSEHOLD SERIAL NO.:
9. SAMPLE NO.:
11. LOCATION :
12: MARITAL STATUS:

**PART B: HEALTH**

1. How

Appendix III: Questionnaire for key INGO board members of Selected INGOs

**PART A**

**PERSONAL INFORMATION**

1. GENDER: MALE FEMALE

2. AGE: 20- 30yrs 30- 40yrs 40- 50 yrs

MORE THAN 50yrs

3. NAME OF THE ORGANIZATION .....

4. THE ORGANIZATION CAN BE CLASSIFIED AS A

INGO Local NGO CBO

PUBLIC ENTERPRISE

OTHERS SPECIFY.....

5. RESPONDENT POSTION IN THE ORGANIZATION .....

**PART B**

**The Nature and Extent of INGOs' Involvement in Human Security**

1. For how long has Your Organization Been Present in Kenya?

1 – 5 years

5 – 10 years

10 – 15 years

More than 15 years

2. For how long has Your Organization Been Present in Kakamega county?

1 – 5 years

5 – 10 years

10 – 15 years

More than 15 years

3. In your view, Your Organization Primarily Deals with issues?

Health

Poverty and Livelihoods

Environment

Conflict and Peace building

Advocacy and Human Rights

Others (specify)

4. Does your Organization give loans to the locals?

Yes ( )

No ( )

5. The organization been of any benefit to the people of this county.

Strongly Agree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Stongly Disagree

If you agree, please indicate how/why

## **PART C**

### **Level and State Of Human Security**

6. In your view, what are the three most important sources of threat to the people of

Kakamega County? (Please tick three that apply)

A) Economic threats

B) Personal Security/Safety threats

C) Environmental Degradation

D) Health related Threats (diseases)

E) Lack of Social amenities

7. From the perspective of women's human security, which areas are the most secure and

which areas are the least secure, in your view?

## **PART D**

**Challenges That INGOs Face in the Pursuit of Human Security Goals**

8. Are there any challenges that your team faces in the execution of their agenda?

YES

NO

9. If yes above, please indicate some of the challenges. If possible, indicate how they have/will be overcome

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10. In your view, how would you describe the organization's relationship with the national government of Kenya?

11. In your view, is there a need for the organization to change their approach in trying to achieve their goals? Specify

Strongly Agree

Disagree

Neutral

Agree

Strongly Disagree

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